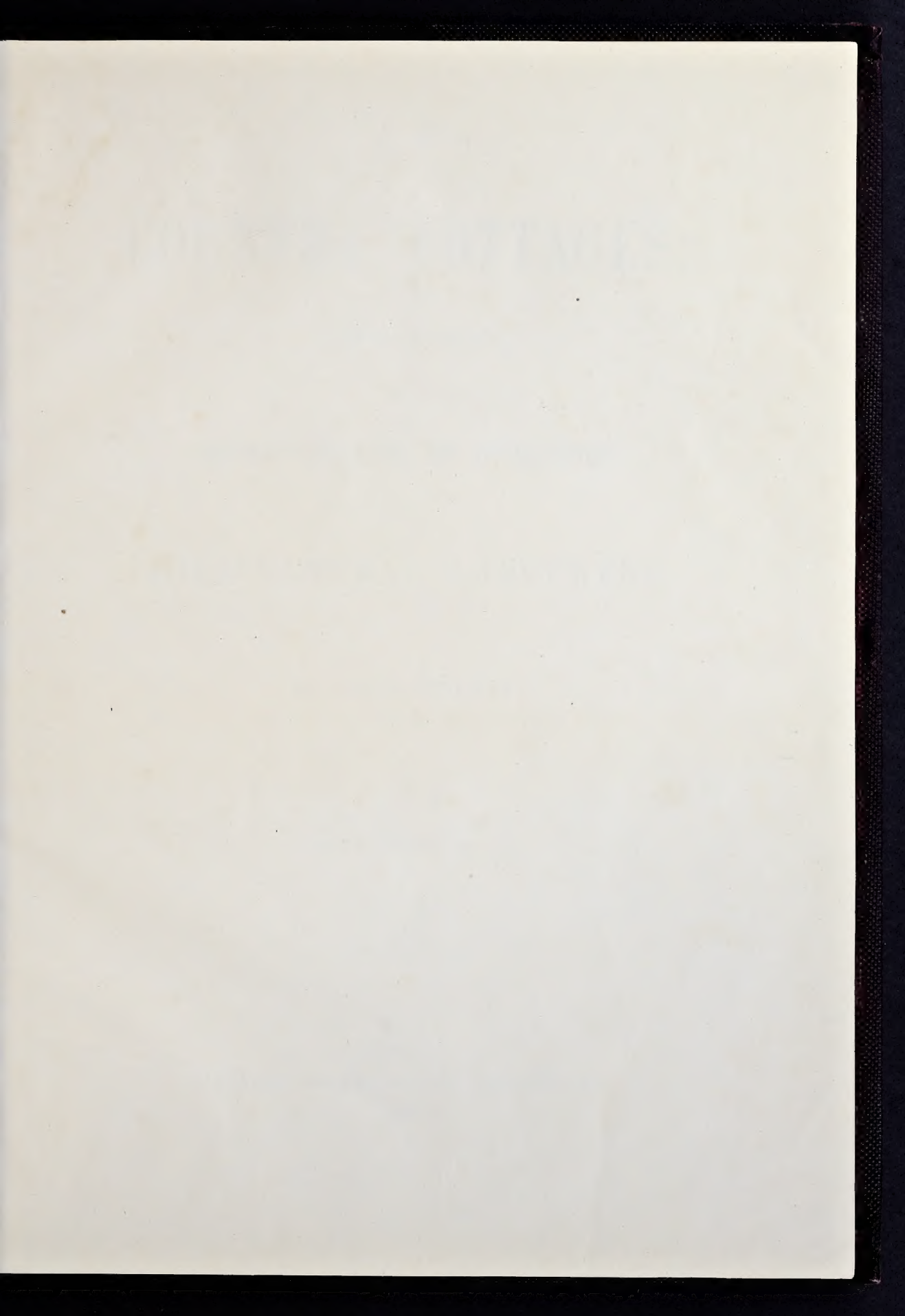


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COUNTRY COTTAGES:

A SERIES OF DESIGNS

FOR AN

IMPROVED CLASS OF DWELLINGS

FOR

AGRICULTURAL LABOURERS.

BY JOHN VINCENT,

ARCHITECT.

“RUSTICUS PRÆVAS ARTES EXERCENS
VERUS ATLAS ORBEM SUSTINET.”

SECOND EDITION.

LONDON:

ROBERT HARDWICKE, 192, PICCADILLY.

1861.

LIST OF PLATES.

<i>Nos.</i>	<i>Estimated Cost.</i>
1. DOUBLE COTTAGE (BRICK) WITH TWO BED-ROOMS	£250
2. SINGLE COTTAGE (BRICK) WITH TWO BED-ROOMS	125
A ALTERNATIVE PLANS, GIVING THREE BED-ROOMS TO EACH OF THE DESIGNS NOS. 1 & 2.....	{ 265 130
3. SINGLE COTTAGE (STONE) WITH THREE BED-ROOMS, SUITABLE FOR A LODGE, OR GAMEKEEPER'S RESIDENCE.....	130
4. DOUBLE COTTAGE (STONE) WITH THREE BED-ROOMS.....	250
5. DITTO (STONE) WITH THE SAME ACCOMMODATION, BUT VARIED IN ARRANGEMENT	250
6. GROUP OF THREE COTTAGES (BRICK), EACH HAVING THREE BED-ROOMS	400
7. GROUP OF FOUR COTTAGES (STONE), SUITABLE FOR A VILLAGE STREET, AND A SUPERIOR CLASS OF TENANTS	550
8. SECTIONS OF DESIGNS, NOS. 1, 2, 3, & 4.	
9. SECTIONS OF DESIGNS, NOS. 5, 6, & 7.	
10. DETAILS OF WINDOW (No. 1), AND PORCH (No. 2).	
11. DETAILS OF FINIAL AND BARGEBOARD, DORMER AND OTHER WINDOWS (No. 6).	
12. DETAILS OF WINDOW AND LEAN-TO OVER DOORWAY (No. 3), AND OF PORCH DOORWAY, &c. (No. 5).	
13. DETAILS OF DORMER WINDOW (No. 7), AND OF LIVING-ROOM AND BED-ROOM WINDOWS (No. 5).	
14. SKETCHES OF CHIMNEYS TO DESIGNS NOS. 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, & 6.	
15. PERSPECTIVE VIEWS OF DESIGNS NOS. 1 & 2.	
16. DITTO ... DITTO ... No. 3.	
17. DITTO ... DITTO ... No. 4.	
18. DITTO ... DITTO ... No. 5.	
19. DITTO ... DITTO ... No. 6.	
20. DITTO ... DITTO ... No. 7.	

PREFACE TO THE SECOND EDITION.

THE praise, so very generally bestowed in reviews, and the demand for another Edition, are gratifying proofs of the success of this Work. In re-publishing it, I am induced to notice some remarks made by one writer, in the course of which he alludes to the cost of the designs here given, and says:—

“As for the structures which the author is willing—for a consideration*—to erect for the comfort of humble workmen, they are well enough, and deserve the attention of country gentlemen with ample purses and benevolent intentions. The speculator seeking for an investment, or the less opulent proprietor, who, though willing to do well by his dependents, cannot afford to lay out money without a prospect of a modest but clear three per cent. interest, will, however, find very little that is suited to their views.”

Personally, I should be exceedingly indisposed to assist, even in the most indirect manner, a cottage “speculator seeking for an investment.” It would be hard to imagine a worse misfortune, or one more destructive of the relations between a proprietor and the peasantry on his lands, than the intrusion of a stranger, whose sole aim would be—not to advance their interests or to increase their comforts, but—to screw an exorbitant rent out of the poor, toiling labourers. If there is one point of view, from which we may regard with complacency the laws which impede the sale and transfer of land, it is that they keep off a horde of speculating minor builders, akin to those whose lease-begotten abortions cumber our Agar, Kentish, and Camden Towns. Without these difficulties and those arising from the dubious character of the investment, wherever there was a piece of ground, independent of the principal landowner, there would start up a row of ugly tenements, of the flimsiest construction and most defective accommodation, built without the slightest reference to the wants of the district; and, as might very well happen, placed in immediate contiguity to mansion, or lodge, with that daring defiance habitual to persons who consult nobody’s feelings or interests but their own.

As to the less opulent proprietor, no man is expected to rush into bricks and mortar beyond what his means conveniently allow, even under the specious plea of benevolence; or to erect more cottages than are required for the proper working of the farms on his estate. It is sufficient to see that those already built are made decent and habitable; and with less than this no landlord should be content.

I should be justified in repudiating the altogether gratuitous assumption that my designs *must* be carried out only in low-waged districts. The cost of them would not be extravagant in counties, in which the husbandman earns 12s. or 13s. a week. If I have erred on the side of picturesqueness of outline, or of detail, surely the offence, in a work intended for general circulation, is one not without excuse.† I advocate *good*, not *cheap* cottages; and, therefore, show

* Playful Reviewer! Of course, he received no “consideration” for the article—almost a column—which he wrote. It was, doubtless, a little pleasant amusement for him, and, in no way, part of his occupation.

† I hope that, in saying this, I may not even appear to con-

travene the necessity of giving the *first* place in consideration to the interior. If a question should arise between increasing the size of a sleeping, or living room, and putting some external ornament, I cannot but see that the decision should be in favour of the former and against the latter.

such plan and arrangement as are most desirable; but it is evident that these might be modified to suit a particular site, or to meet a particular set of requirements with a limited sum of money. Indeed, allusions to a reduction of expense will be found in a foot-note to page 14; and, on pages 17 and 18, in the description of designs Nos. 1 and 6.

The cost of a good, plain cottage, if built substantially and with the utmost saving of material, but with the accommodation demanded by our present advanced views, is seldom less than 100*l.*, and, more often, beyond that sum. Under favourable conditions—such, for instance, as bricks being cheap, or a quarry on the property; labour abundant; a slackness in building-operations; a site conveniently lying on a line of railway and near a station, with lime and sand easily accessible; and *several* cottages being built *at the same time*—under such conditions, the cost of each would, probably, be somewhat under 100*l.* But these are propitious circumstances which do not ordinarily occur; although the want of cottage accommodation is constant and continuous.

I am not wrong in supposing—for there is ocular proof of the fact—that many cottage-building landowners are not insensible to the advantage of spending something (and it is, really, but a little) beyond the strict necessity of the case, in order to produce pleasing objects in villages, which are their own property. To some minds there is as much pleasure in outlay in this direction, as in the embellishment of their own mansions and grounds: and some there are who look upon the good gifts of Providence as benefits to be shared with others, simple cottagers though they be, in the effort to make their corner of the land a brighter and a better place. But your utilitarian, whose organization contains no part so sensitive as his pocket, scouts these ideas, and regards them as little better than the drivellings of insanity.

There are, perhaps, landowners among the number of persons who wish to get a character for benevolence, without the real possession of that quality—who strive, in fact, to play “the Samaritan without the oil and the twopence.” If the rich complain of the expense attendant on increasing the home-comforts of the poor, they must be very little in earnest when they profess to wish to attain that object. The claim, which the agricultural labourer has on the compassion of the landowner, has been in some conspicuous instances nobly recognized. At the same time, the impossibility of making cottage-building remunerative “under existing circumstances,” is a known fact, and indicates the necessity for an attempt, at least, to change those circumstances. In two ways only could this be done; either, by building hovels down to the level of wages, or, by bringing about a rise in wages, so as to afford the chance of a fair return for the outlay on a better class of dwellings. There can be no doubt as to which is the more humane method, or the one more probable, in an age that boasts of its enlightenment; in a country which stands in the van of civilization; and at a time when it is, even, the fashion to study how to improve the condition of the working man socially, and politically.

The difficulty (without positive inhumanity) of building down to the level of wages having been proved, over and over again, by actual experiment, there remains the alternative of looking for a better return from an increase of wages; and this result is more hopeful than would at first sight appear. It is impossible to struggle against the conviction—and, happily for him, the growing conviction—that, somehow or other, the farm labourer has received less than his due share of the profit, derived from the improved cultivation of land and the advance made in agricultural science. By tending to equalize wages throughout the country, a free circulation of labour would, inevitably, raise the price of it from its now lowest rates. Those, who do mo-

the honour of reading the introductory chapter, will see that I take wages to be the best test of a man's condition, and that I make the increase of them the hinge on which the hope of improvement turns. How can the position of a labouring man be improved otherwise; for his earnings should allow a margin for sickness, and a provision for old age, as well as what suffices for the decent support of a family? Scarcely any one is sanguine enough to expect that farmers will, of themselves, raise wages. These will still be regulated by the laws of supply and demand; although it may be well worth while to pay a little more for the services of a strong, able-bodied man, than for those of the half-fed spectre that scares one in certain counties, and stands (or stoops) a living proof of the artificial restrictions imposed by the Law of Settlement.

The evils of overcrowding in cottages, though, in part, a bequest of the reckless improvidence engendered by the vicious administration of the Old Poor Law, are, in a great measure, owing to the scantiness of a labourer's pay, by reason of which he is tempted to take in a lodger, whenever he can get a chance. He is, naturally, eager to resort to any means, whereby he may eke out his wretched pittance. This lodging-letting is objectionable on many grounds; the most obvious being, that a number of persons herd together in a manner most destructive to health and morals. Do what we will for the peasant, co-operation on his part is absolutely necessary. When we have done all in our power to remove obstacles, it rests entirely with him whether he will avail himself of the advantages, which accrue to him from an ameliorated condition. Experience suggests a re-assuring answer to any doubts on this head; for, even at present, there is a point below which the English labourer will not descend. Extended knowledge and increasing facilities of intercommunication will do away with the reproach that "a man is, of all sorts of luggage, the most difficult to be transported." Machinery will release the peasant from some of the lowest forms of drudgery. The crass ignorance, which now afflicts him and which shows a mind but little raised above the clouds over which he shambles, will be pierced and enlightened. He will learn that, with but little effort on his part and a day's journey at most, he may improve his condition most materially. It is all very well to counsel submission and contentment with his lot, but the laudable desire to raise himself, implanted in the breast of every man, should be encouraged; or, we must accept the reverse of the proposition and say, that it is the whole duty of the husbandman to earn nine shillings a week, and to be thankful that his eyes did not open in a county in which the wages are higher.

There have been enough, and to spare, of pæans sung over the British labourer; but no one, who sees him and knows him as he is, and not as he is too often painted, can pretend to deny that much, very much yet remains to be done, before he can take a place in the scale of intelligent beings. There is far too much disposition to compare the state of an Englishman with that of a foreigner, and to plume ourselves on the contrast. It would be about as useful to compare a man, who had lost but one leg, with another who had lost both his legs. Small comfort would the former find in knowing that there were others more sorely deprived than himself. The true test would be to set him alongside a man with his nether limbs complete.

I did not undertake the task of getting information as to the wages of labourers, and of applying to the returns the teachings of political economy without, at the same time, making up my mind to meet with some hostile criticism, accompanied by "smiles" at a statement of facts, otherwise unanswerable. I still venture to think that there is an intimate connection between "the propagation of the human species and the best means of housing the poor;" and that the two subjects, so far from being distinct, are inseparably bound up, one with the other.

PREFACE TO THE SECOND EDITION.

In avowing myself a believer in the dogma of Malthus (and dictate of common sense)—that a man ought not to marry until he has a reasonable prospect of supporting the average number of children born to a marriage—I expect dissent, if not denunciation, on the part of some persons. Sentimentalism, unfortunately, has more than its lawful sway over this question of marriage; and a man, who would narrowly scrutinize the means of a suitor for his own daughter's hand, sees no harm (especially, if he is a public writer) in Giles or Hodge *hoping* that his labour will support his future quota of family without any preparation made, or store laid up. Then, there are others who talk as if immorality had but one form, and that confined to the single state; and as if the marriage-rite served, in some sort, as a passport for Heaven.

Whatever panacea is devised for the ills that affect the condition of the working classes (including that quack remedy, the franchise), the 'principle of population' is too important to be pushed out of sight; and, however statesmen or economists may differ, this is the ultimate barrier to all their theories. Until man can live without food, the proportion between food and the consumers can never be an unimportant matter. A study of the principle of population shows, too, how, for the most part, independent of government is the condition of our labouring class. With security to life and property and the freedom enjoyed under our mixed constitution, the hewers of wood and drawers of water have far less to fear from defective laws than from their own improvidence; and, thus, they have, to a very great extent, their happiness, or misery, in their own hands. But, though this be the case, it is not a whit less the duty of the ruling classes to devise such laws and promote such remedial measures, as shall make a life of constant and severe labour as tolerable as possible.

J. V.

PREFACE TO THE FIRST EDITION.

THE interest, taken by the wealthier members of society in the condition of the labouring class, is a marked characteristic of the day. Time was when it was necessary to dilate on the duties which the rich owe to the poor; but now these duties are generally acknowledged, and by none more clearly than by the great landowners, who are ever careful to provide decent and comfortable dwellings for the peasantry on their estates.

To aid in some measure the work of cottage-improvement is the object, with which this volume is published. In the designs given, parsimony is not studied so much as the just balance between end and means, which is the true purpose of 'economy.'

In venturing to make some remarks beyond the strict limits of a professional work, the author has, perhaps, laid himself open to the charge of having sinned in the face of the caution, *Ne sutor ultra crepidam*. His plea is, that it is impossible to dissociate political economy from the question of improving the homes of the labouring people, and that his own experience by no means bore out the jubilant tone, frequently assumed in speaking of the condition of agricultural labourers. It was difficult to understand that, as a class, they had benefited by the extended resources of the country, because of the tendency to a rapid increase in their numbers, by which the supply of labour is kept on a level with, if not beyond, the demand. An inquiry—slight and imperfect, it must be owned, but, so far as it went, conclusive—into their earnings established the fact, that these had really been very little (and, in some places, not at all) augmented; consequently, their position can have sustained but very partial improvement within the period popularly selected for comparison, viz. since the introduction of free trade.

The connection between food and population is evident. If there are more persons than food, some must die to make room for the others, and the due proportion between the two terms must be reimposed. So of the relation between labour and the supply. If the number of labourers be above the proportion of work, some must be without employment, or the whole body must be content with reduced wages.

The proportion between population and food, and that between the supply and demand for labour, have a most important bearing on the condition of the people. The famous work of Malthus clearly demonstrated the value of understanding the principle of population. The tendency to increase beyond the means of subsistence is ever in operation, with more or less force; and its pressure is severely felt among the lower orders. Of the fact, that these marry the earliest and have the largest families of children, there can be no doubt. No one, acquainted with agricultural counties, can have failed to notice this, and few can have avoided giving utterance to a very sincere wish that, either the earnings were greater, or the families smaller.

While prosecuting his elaborate researches into the checks to population, arising from vice and misery, in various countries throughout the world, Mr. Malthus discovered the existence

INTRODUCTION TO THE FIRST EDITION

of a 'prudential' check—one, placed by the people themselves on their undue increase, through the medium of provident habits. The efficacy of the last-named check is advocated in the following pages.

Some statistics are given from the Report of the Registrar-General, which show the comparative frequency of marriage in different classes. From these it will appear, that the educated class are guilty of the inconsistency of practising that which they (affect to) deny; for, let a man confess himself a 'Malthusian,' and he instantly plucks down on his head no small amount of obloquy. The poorer classes are supposed to be always able to find work. They may marry early, and without any provision made for the future, trusting implicitly to enjoy a state of health which shall fit them for labour. But, with the 'respectable' classes, a totally different system is necessary. They must think how they are to maintain a household, and how they can clothe and educate their children.

The more favoured classes may be—not altogether unjustly—thought to betray ignorance of the real state of the country by their belief in the existence of 'work,' which possesses the mysterious property of being called forth, whenever required. Yet it happens that, in this highly civilized and wealthy nation, this 'work' is sometimes not to be had, that some persons die of actual starvation, while others are doomed to a toil, of which the actual, bodily evidence would rouse the strongest feelings of pity and consternation.

Prudential restraint is a cure for these evils; and, could it but obtain in the ratio extant in the upper and middle classes, it would benefit the labouring people to a degree, as yet without precedent. To say, that the consequences of prudential restraint would be mischievous, is for the educated classes to condemn themselves.

The most violent opponents of the preventive check are compelled to search for some other, or to admit that the evils, resulting from over-population, are irremediable. Mr. Doubleday, the most doughty antagonist of the Malthusian theory, in his "True Law of Population," brings forward a plethoric check. He has collected facts from ancient and modern history, on which he founds the general proposition that, as luxury and easy living increase, so population decreases. The remedy for correcting the excess of a people is a liberal and generous diet. But this writer has omitted to show how an increase of food is to take place, so as greatly to out-strip the power of increase in the population. He trusts to "an enlightened national morality, which shall preclude luxury on one hand, and oppression and destitution on the other; which, on one side, shall prevent undue accumulation, and on the other secure to men the fruits of their labour, always sufficient." It seems more probable that, in the same age and among the same people, who are subject to the same laws and acted on by the same outward circumstances, a greater amount of knowledge would produce, throughout all ranks, results similar to those already found among the grades, superior in culture and position.

COUNTRY COTTAGES.

AGRICULTURAL LABOURERS' EARNINGS AND CONDITION.

SIXTEEN years have passed since the incendiary fires of Suffolk and Norfolk laid bare the deplorable condition of the peasantry in those counties. In the series of letters published in the *Times*, from its special correspondent, those lamentable outrages were shown to be chiefly the result of low wages, but also of other circumstances, arising partly out of the altered custom of engaging agricultural labourers by the day, instead of, as formerly, by the year; and partly produced by the effect of the Poor Law on their employment, as well as by the enclosure of common and vacant lands.

The reduction in the price of agricultural produce, occasioned by the alterations in the Corn Laws, had depressed the farmers so greatly that, in order to meet their rents, they were compelled to save in the item of labour. Wages generally were reduced; and the absence of employment, caused by the drought of 1844, brought labourers to the utmost destitution.

Since that period, and consequent on the introduction of Free Trade, the imports and exports of the country have more than doubled, and the fund for the employment of labour has vastly increased. All classes of labourers ought, then, to have benefited; but, although the wages of artisans and others have been raised considerably, it cannot be said that the rural population have received a proportionate share of the national prosperity. The southern counties still retain an unenviable pre-eminence for high poor's-rates and low wages, showing the truth of the doctrine, that an increase of national wealth does not necessarily ensure the comfort of the people, unless accompanied by the restraint of prudence on their habits.

The application of chemical manures to the land, the use of steam-power and machinery, improved methods of drainage and cultivation, and the enterprise created by rivalry between men of capital,—all these have increased the weight of crops in a remarkable manner. Rents have advanced; and yet, whenever a farm is to be let, a keen contest ensues between proposing tenants.

Notwithstanding the increased profits derived from the soil, a rapid growth of population tends to check improvement in the husbandman's condition. In many counties he is still existing on

the debateable ground between poverty and pauperism, oscillating between dependence on parish relief and self-dependence, purchased by ill-requited toil, with no prospect in his old age but the inevitable Workhouse, unless death release him from an alternative so distasteful and repugnant to his feelings, and so degrading in the estimation of his particular section of society.

Mr. Thornton, in his valuable work on "Over-population,"¹ gives the following account of the condition of the labourers:—

"No other part of England seems to have a better right than Lincolnshire to be entitled the labourer's paradise. * * * * If taskwork be taken into account, a man's average earnings are from 13s. to 16s. 6d. a week, to which his wife may, at certain seasons, add 10d. or 1s. a day by field labour." The practice of allotting to him a portion of land of half an acre in extent adds to his resources. The produce of this may be taken at an average of ten pounds; and, by allowing a pig to be kept, the average annual value is estimated as high as eleven pounds, or "a fraction less than 4s. 3d. a week, which, added to 14s. of wages, will make a weekly income of 18s. 3d. altogether.

"About Kelstern, agricultural labourers can afford to eat meat every day; and throughout Lincolnshire they seem to be able to do so pretty frequently. At other times they have bacon (for they almost always eat their pig themselves); but their principal diet is wheaten, and sometimes barley bread, dumplings, and potatoes, with cheese, onions, and other vegetables, and tea.

"This account of Lincolnshire requires little alteration to adapt it to the neighbouring county of Rutland."

In Northumberland, Cumberland, and Westmoreland, the food of these people "consists of oatmeal porridge, bread made of barley and pea-meal mixed, potatoes, milk, and, occasionally, bacon."

In Dorsetshire, "bread and potatoes do really form the staple of their food. As for meat, most of them would not know its taste, if, once or twice in the course of their lives—on the Squire's having a son and heir born to him, or, on the young gentleman's coming of age,—they were not regaled with a dinner of what the newspapers call 'old English fare.' Some of them contrive to have a little bacon, in the proportion, it seems, of half a pound a week to a dozen persons, but they more commonly use fat to give the potatoes a relish; and, as one of them told Mr. Austin, 'they don't *always* go without cheese.'

"In Wiltshire, the labourer's diet consists, as in Dorsetshire, chiefly of potatoes and bread, but the proportion of the latter article is smaller, and potatoes with salt are sometimes the only food." In Somersetshire, also, "potatoes and bread form the chief sustenance of the cottager." In Norfolk and Suffolk, "even when employment was abundant, and while wages remained at the old rate of 10s. a week, the peasantry seldom tasted anything better than dry bread."

It may be objected that these details belong to a period long past. The actual wages, that are now paid to the labourer, will convince the most sceptical that the account above given holds true in all essential points of the present year. Lincolnshire will be seen to hold a high place; while the eastern, southern, and south-western counties are very slightly improved. In Norfolk

¹ "Over-population, and its Remedy." By WILLIAM THOMAS THORNTON.

and Suffolk the weekly wages are nine (and occasionally eight) shillings. In Wiltshire, Dorset, Somerset, and Berkshire, they are, in some places, as low as 8s. a week.

The very interesting letters of the *Times* correspondent furnish data, on which to calculate how these rates of wages can be applied to the support of a family. In the *Times* of June 11th, 1844, we read:—

“The lowest amount of bread which a peasant requires for his family is estimated at half a stone of flour a head per week, on an average. This is the common consumption, unless the children are grown, when it is more. * * * The families usually are seven or eight children, often more, rarely so few as three or four, unless in the case of a very young couple. Let us take the case of a family of five children as a medium; that, with the man and his wife, will be seven persons, who will require three stones and a half of flour per week, at half a stone per head. In these villages the flour costs 2s. 2d. per stone;² a family of this kind would, therefore, require to spend 7s. 7d. in flour alone. For the purchase of cheese, the next staple article of food, and shop-goods, at least 6d. per head per week is required, to be at all sufficient; that will be 3s. 6d., which, added to 7s. 7d., makes 11s. 1d. per week. But the man's wages are only 9s. a week; here is, therefore, an expenditure of 2s. 1d. a week necessary more than his wages amount to, without an atom of animal food. But with his earnings at harvest and seed-times, and cottage allotment, he earns about £9 additional; of this sum, £5. 8s. 4d. will be consumed in meeting the 2s. 1d. per week required over and above his wages, leaving a balance of £3. 11s. 8d. Now, the rents of the cottages here vary from £3 to £5 a year; take the medium of £4, and the remaining £3. 11s. 8d. will not meet the rent. But where are the clothes, and the shoes, or any little additional comforts, to come from, leaving alone animal food—or, as they call it here, ‘a crumb of pork,’—and leaving entirely out of calculation the chances of illness, or being out of work? Clearly, shoes and clothing must come from stinting themselves of the necessary quantity of food; and if they indulge in the luxury of ‘a crumb of pork,’ it must be at the expense of a larger quantity of bread.

“Now, this is where people are said to be ‘well off’; and these are examples of peasants in regular employment, and the best I could find. These, with much pinching and contrivance, with steady labour from day to day, and never spending a farthing wastefully, manage to live.”

But to come down to more recent times. At the beginning of 1859, a rather glowing account of the labourer's condition drew forth some letters, giving the reverse of the picture. A resident in a Berkshire village writes:—

“The wages of our carters, shepherds, ox and nag men, as well as the labourers in winter, never exceed 9s. a week, and are more frequently down to 8s. per week. The wives earn 8d. a day, and boys and girls, of the ages of from 10 to 14 years, get 2s. 6d. and 3s. a week. In the harvest the wages average 12s. a week. No farmer in the village will draw coals for the poor, and the plots of land in the allotments are paid for by each occupant. This, with bread and rent, varying from 1s. to 2s. 3d. a week, nearly consumes the poor man's wages.

² It may be remarked here, that the year 1844 is assigned (20th Annual Report) to a group of five years of *intermediate* prices, the price of wheat per quarter in that year being 51s. 3d. During the last six years wheat sold as follows:—

	s.	d.		s.	d.
1854 - - - - -	72	5	1857 - - - - -	56	5
1855 - - - - -	71	8	1858 - - - - -	44	3
1856 - - - - -	69	2	1859 - - - - -	43	10

Most of our people have large young families, and out of a population of four hundred, only nine families are rich enough to keep a pig. Where the people find money for clothes, shoes, candles, soap, &c., is a mystery to me. We have had a great deal of low fever in the village since December, and I heard accidentally that a family were suffering much from it. I went to see them, and found the husband ill and home from his work, and three of their seven children (all under nine years of age) bad with the fever; and the wife, who daily expects to be confined, told me, upon my asking her, that she had nothing in the house but 4 lbs. of bread, and that their master stopped William's wages while he was at home ill."

A clergyman, writing from Wiltshire, says,—

"The extent of the parish in which I live is nearly 5,000 acres, without a single butcher in any of the villages—and half a dozen other parishes in the neighbourhood are similarly situated,—for the simple reason that the labourers in those parishes are unable either to feed pigs or patronize the butcher, in consequence of the low rates of wages they receive from the farmers. I reside in a parish (which ought not to be the poorest in the county, inasmuch as it is justly celebrated for the finest cattle-breeders in England, as well as for skilful and wealthy agriculturists) where the regular labourers are receiving only 7*s.* a week. When the father of a family has to maintain a wife and three or four children, all unable to work, paying 1*s.* weekly for house rent, and 1*s.* 4*d.* per cwt. for coal, he has no spare money to buy either bacon, mutton, or beef; and as the wages are the same in the parishes referred to, the butcher is seldom seen, unless 'at the Parsonage or the Squire's.'"

The following Table gives the farm-labourers' earnings in several counties of England. The current rates show more than is actually received, from the universal practice of making deductions—even to a quarter of a day—during rainy or bad weather. It may be imagined, how great must have been the loss on this account during the extraordinarily rainy season through which we have lately passed.

It may be stated, that the information was obtained from persons resident in the several parishes mentioned, and was brought down to the end of January (1860). This is given in an abstract form, under the head of "Remarks," from which the Average Wages are deduced in the next column.

COUNTRY COTTAGES.

Table of Labourers' Wages in Twenty-nine English Counties.

PARISH.	REMARKS.	WAGES.	PARISH.	REMARKS.	WAGES.
BERKSHIRE:		<i>s. d.</i>	ESSEX—(continued.)		<i>s. d.</i>
Lamhorne	8s. per week	8 0	Rochford Hundred	Labourers, 9s. to 10s. Ploughmen, 10s. to 11s.	9 6
Padworth	All the farmers pay 10s. (with one exception: he pays 9s.).	10 0	Northern Parishes	General labourers as low as 8s.	8 0
BUCKINGHAMSHIRE:			Hinchford Hundred....	Common husbandmen, 9s. Ploughmen, 10s. 6d. to 11s. and 12s.—(the last sum of rare occurrence.) In addition to these, they usually make from 5l. to 6l. 10s. in harvest.	9 0
Beaconsfield	Some 9s. 6d. and from that to 11s. per week. The average is very near 10s. There are generally a good number out of regular employment at this time of the year [January], who are put to work on the roads, by the parish officers, and get from 5s. 6d. to 8s. per week.	10 0	GLOUCESTERSHIRE:		
Waddesdon	From 10s. to 11s. per week....	10 6	Edgeworth	Day labourers, 8s. 6d. to 9s. Carters and shepherds, 10s. to 11s. Women, 7d. to 8d. per day. Boys, 1s. 6d. to 6s. per week.	8 9
(near Aylesbury)			Stanway	Labourers, 9s.	9 0
CAMBRIDGESHIRE:			(near Winchcombe)		
Chatteris	9s. per week. A great many are at the present time out of employ.	9 0	Wickwar	Average price for able-bodied men, 12s.	12 0
Cottenham	10s. per week	10 0	HAMPSHIRE:		
Melbourne	From 10s. to 12s. per week....	11 0	Bentworth	In and around this parish, 9s..	9 0
DERBYSHIRE:			Petersfield	Average in this neighbourhood, 10s.	10 0
Biggin (by Newhaven) ..	In winter 12s., or 6s. to 7s. and rations. In summer, <i>i. e.</i> during harvest, 14s. to 16s.	13 0	HEREFORDSHIRE:		
Brampton	The average rate of wages paid to ordinary farm-labourers is 13s. 6d., they, of course, maintaining themselves. In harvest-time their masters usually let to them the shearing and the mowing by the acre, by which the men can earn something more during those periods.	13 6	Bodenham	8s. per week, with an allowance of 3 quarts of cider per day.	8 0
Chelmerston	12s. to 18s. per week. The average about 15s. a week.	15 0	(near Leominster)		
DEVONSHIRE:			Kilpeck	Taking the year round, 12s. ..	12 0
Ashburton	In the field, or on the farms, 10s. per week, and 3 pints of cider a day. Day's work 12 hours. The labourers are all well employed.	10 0	Pembridge	8s. to 10s., with an allowance of 2 quarts of cider per day.	9 0
Crediton (N. Devon) ..	The usual wages in this parish, 9s. per week.	9 0	Whitchurch (near Ross)	Labourers, 8s. to 9s. (A very few get 10s.) Old men, 6s. to 7s.	8 6
Exeter (immediate neighbourhood of)	Waggoners, 1s. 8d. per day, with 2 quarts of cider.	9 0	HERTFORDSHIRE:		
Torrington (N. Devon)	From 8s. to 9s. per week.....	8 6	Baldock	9s. and 10s.	9 6
DORSETSHIRE:			Thorley	Labourers, 9s. Ploughmen, 10s.	9 0
Bere Regis	8s., 9s., and 10s. per week, but mostly 8s. and 9s.	8 6	Welwyn	Average earnings per week, 11s.	11 0
Buckland Newton	Ordinary farm-labourers, some 8s. per week, with house and fuel; others 9s. per week, finding their own house, &c. Carters and shepherds, 9s. per week, with house, &c.	9 0	KENT:		
Compton Abbas	From 9s. to 10s.	9 6	Bridge (near Canterbury)	Able-bodied labourers, 12s.	12 0
ESSEX:			Hawkhurst	12s.	12 0
Barnston	From 8s. to 9s.	8 6	Monks-Horton	Ordinary men, about 12s. [Of the farm-servants who board in the house: Waggoners, yearly, 10l. and 12l. Waggoners' mates, yearly, 5l. to 8l.]	12 0
Chipping Ongar	There are few farm-labourers in this small parish. In this place and neighbourhood wages vary from 8s. to 10s. Average in this and adjoining parishes, 10s.	9 0	LEICESTERSHIRE:		
East Hanningfield		10 0	Coleorton	From 12s. to 13s.	12 6
			Lutterworth	First-class labourers (such as look after Stock), 13s. or 14s. 2nd class " 10s. or 11s. 3rd class " 8s. or 9s. Old men " 5s. or 6s. [The wages are rather higher in harvest.]	12 0
			Markfield	Day labourers, 12s.	12 0
			LINCOLNSHIRE:		
			Deulton (near Grantham)	At present, ordinary labourers, 12s.	12 0
			South Elkington	12s., but a great many labourers cannot get work.	12 0
			Knaith (Gainsborough)	Two shillings a day	12 0
			Raithby (near Spilsby)	2s. a day, or 12s. a week, if the weather permits them to get a whole week.—There are many men out of employ at this time [January], and only the best labourers find work. Most probably wages will remain as they are at present till grass-mowing time, and then it is likely they will advance 6d. a day.	12 0
			Sempringham	Farm-labourers obtain here according to their ability: some 12s. weekly, others 10s., and others 9s. Boys earn from 6d. to 8d. a day.	10 6
			(cum Pointon)		
Centre of the County ..	General labourers, 10s. Horse-men, 12s.	10 0			

* * The following particulars are given by the editor of
"The People's History of Essex."

COUNTRY COTTAGES

FARISH.	REMARKS.	WAGES	FARISH.	REMARKS.	WAGES
NORFOLK:		s. d.	WILTSHIRE		s. d.
Diss.....	From 8s. to 9s. are the wages given, with only one exception. The Rector takes 18s. 6d. as wages to do the average wages	9 0	Great Bedwyn	Average 8s.	8 0
Massingham	9s.	9 0	(near Marlborough)		
Merton	Ordinary farm-labourers, 9s.	9 0	Maiden Bradley (Frome)	Ordinary labourers, 9s. Carters, shepherds, and all extra servants, 11s. to 14s.	9 0
NORTHAMPTONSHIRE			Westbury	Ordinary labourers, 9s. (All round this parish they have only 8s.) Jobbing labourers, 10s. Carters and shepherds a little more.	9 0
Braybrooke	Labourers, 10s. Housekeepers and shop assistants, 10s.	10 0	WORCESTERSHIRE		
Bulwick	Farm-labourers, 10s. to 12s. Lads from 10s. to 12s. Shepherds, 12s. to 14s.	11 0	Hampton Lovett	Labourers' wages range from 9s. to 10s.	9 6
Widby	Some 10s. and others 11s.	10 6	(and other parishes round Droitwich)		
NORTHUMBERLAND:			Seven Stoke	From 8s. to 10s.	9 0
Bolam	Average wages in this parish, 15s. Men hired by the month for 17s. per week for eight months, and 13s. for the rest of year. Men hired by the year, from 14s. to 16s.	15 0	YORKSHIRE [N. RIDING]		
NOTTINGHAMSHIRE:			Askergg	Agricultural labourers are not (as a rule) paid weekly. The average (when they are so paid) is about 2s. 4d. per day during the summer, and 2s. in the winter months.	13 0
Bingham	Labourers, 12s. Women, 5s. Dairymaids, 3s. or 4s. Dairy men harvest the wages are higher	12 0	Eton	Ordinary farm labourers in this township receive 5s. 6d. per week, and "diet." Others a few days (not above twenty) during the year, they have to find their own "diet," in which case they receive from 14s. to 16s.	15 0
Cuckney (near Mansfield)	Best labourers, 2s. 3d. per day. 13s. 6d. Next class, 2s. per day.	12 9	Guisborough	15s. [Coat district]	15 0
OXFORDSHIRE			Sessay (near Thirsk) ..	8s. a week and food. When they maintain themselves, 12s. in winter, and about 11s. in summer	13 0
Bloxham	9s.	9 0	Stokesley	From 12s. to 16s.	14 0
Sin Mlake	9s.	9 0			
Woodstock	10s., but some only 9s.	9 6			
RUTLANDSHIRE:					
Whitwell	Labourers, 12s. Managers of stores, and Wagonmen, 18s.	12 0			
SIROPSHIRE:					
Broughton	From 10s. to 11s.	10 6	YORKSHIRE [W. RIDING]		
Norton-in-Hales	10s.	10 0	Aberford (near Leeds)..	Ordinary labourers on the Gascoigne estate, from 10s. to 12s. When employed on farms, 12s. to 14s. During winter, 12s. Colliery district	13 0
(Market Drayton)					
SOMERSETSHIRE			Bingley (between Leeds and Bradford)	2s. 6d. per day, w. has been twice a day by Ch. w. has been twice a day wages, 2s. to the piece. These rates are due to the kindness of Mr. B. Thompson, Mr. S. Smith	16 6
Cluddar	Yearly average, 10s. per week, with 2 quarts of cider per day	10 0	Plouffe	The great wages here are 3s. 7d., 7s. 10s. 15s. and 16s. 2s. 5d. without maintenance. But it is 1s. 4d. in winter, 1s. 6d. in winter. At from 8s. to 10s. 12s. and 15s. per week, according to the nature of the employment.	13 0
Felton (near Bristol) ..	Able labourers, 10s. to 10s. 6d. In a forest, 12s. Able labourers, 12s.	9 0	South Dalton	From 13s. to 15s. "Ch. have" 12s. 6d. w. 2s. 6d. added to be 11s. per week.	14 0
South Petherton	8s. per week, with cider, and 9s. without. Almost all work done with their wages	9 0	(near Beverley)	12s. to 14s. per week, without victuals; and 7s. to 9s. w. victuals, according to their ability.	13 0
SUFFOLK			Ervingham	From 13s. to 15s. "Ch. have" 12s. 6d. w. 2s. 6d. added to be 11s. per week.	14 0
Aldringham	Ordinary farming-men in this and every other parish round the 18s. 6d.	9 0	(near Market Weighon)	12s. to 14s. per week, without victuals; and 7s. to 9s. w. victuals, according to their ability.	13 0
Boxted	The best labourers get only 8s.	8 0	Huntington (near York) ..	From 13s. to 15s. "Ch. have" 12s. 6d. w. 2s. 6d. added to be 11s. per week.	14 0
Luxfield	Labourers, 9s. Horse-drivers, 10s.	9 0			
Mendlesham (Stonham) ..	Labourers, 9s. Horsemen, 10s.	9 0			
Melford	Labourers, 9s. Horsemen, 10s.	9 0			
Rutledge	Some, 8s.; and some, 9s.	8 6			
(near Stowmarket)					
SURREY					
Great Bookham	Ordinary farm-labourers, 12s.	12 0			
Leigh (near Reigate) ..	12s. to 13s.	13 6			
SUSSEX					
Mayfield	Most farmers pay 12s., now and then one will pay only 11s. [The work is often put out to be done by the piece]	12 0			
Tilghington	10s.	10 0			
Uckfield	Average wages, 12s.	12 0			
WESTMORELAND:					
Kirkby Lonsdale	Farm-servants hired by the year, 20l. to 22l. Labourers, from 2s. 6d. to 3s. per day.	16 6			

Though incomplete, this Table will suffice to show the existing remuneration of agricultural labour. If more parishes had been added under each county, the list would have been lengthened, without establishing any material difference.⁵ The disproportion between the wages of one

³ This may be readily seen by the instances of Norfolk and Suffolk, in which counties any number of places would prove the universal rate to be now, as it was in 1844, 9s. or less.

county and those of another is apparent; and, as low wages are a convertible term for redundant supply, there would appear to be nothing more simple than to transfer the surplus labour of one district to another, in which that labour would be made available, and so to equalize the general earnings. The prime obstacle to this is the law of settlement, which interferes with the free action of the husbandman, and prevents him from offering his labour in the market in which the best price is paid for it.⁴ Minor obstacles are a natural indisposition on his part to leave his birthplace and neighbours; and, after having been bred to husbandry, a degree of unfitness for, or dislike to, occupations requiring close confinement. Notwithstanding these impediments, a migration of labourers to towns and manufactures does take place; but not in sufficient numbers to relieve the ratepayers, and, by relieving them of their poor's rates, to add to the fund for the employment of the independent labour left at home.

All things considered, twelve shillings, as weekly wages, would probably supply a man with tolerable comfort for himself and family; the rather, if he be allowed taskwork and have a garden, or allotment,⁵ to grow vegetables, &c. for his own use. It is seen from the data, supplied by the *Times* correspondent (p. 3), that when a labourer earns only nine shillings, and there is 'a medium family of five children,' he can do no more than just provide bread (even with flour at 1s. 8d. per stone) and potatoes, with shop-goods, and sometimes bacon, making it a mystery whence, after the rent is paid, comes the money to buy clothing and fuel. There is no question of paying a penny per week for a child's schooling, and he has no chance of indulging in beer. As a noble lord once remarked in Parliament, "beer is a luxury in which the poor toiling labourer cannot hope to indulge."

From the tirades constantly directed against their drunkenness, one would imagine that these people were constantly at the beer-shop. Indeed, any one who speaks about the labourer must recommend a garden, *in order to keep him from the ale-house*, as if he felt irresistibly drawn that way. It is your small farmer, your 'navvy,' and your artisan, who go there, as they can afford the luxury.

Among the lads and young men in villages, doubtless there are some who frequent the ale-house, but they do so from the sheer impossibility of going anywhere else, and from the absence of anything like amusement or recreation. They know not how to spend the evening—perhaps, when they are at home, they find themselves in the way of the people with whom they lodge. There seems, indeed, to be a design against the rural bachelor; for the custom (still retained in the North) of allowing the young labourers to live in the farm-house being abandoned, the single man is made as miserable as possible; and, if not speedily married, is constrained to turn poacher, or to enlist, or to emigrate.

Perhaps a man might as well be drinking beer⁶ as lolling about with his hands in his pockets, or sitting on the parapet of a bridge, engaged in bald chat with his fellows. Who has not felt the tedium of a wet day in the country? Yet to the unhappy rustic that same rain is a harder matter; for, in keeping him from his work, it mulets him of his pay. To him

⁴ It makes all the difference in the world to every man, pauper or independent, whether he is to be held tied to a parish in Wiltshire, where he is now and then, when he is employed, worth 6s. or 7s. a week, and his family commonly less than nothing; or whether he is allowed to reside, say in the West Riding of Yorkshire, where he would be permanently worth 1s. or more, and his family perhaps as much again.—*Supplement to Mr. Coole's Report on the Law of Settlement and Removal*. Session 1854.

⁵ It must be admitted (as stated by a writer in the *Edinburgh Review*, No. 164) that the tendency of an allotment is to enable the labourer to live on lower wages. "Every shilling which it bestows as a supplement to wages, it subtracts from the wages themselves."

⁶ The writer can scarcely be misunderstood as in any—the slightest—degree, palliating so hideous a vice as intemperance.

vacant, listless idleness is the only recreation, after the day's toil is ended. Let him have an evening school, or a reading-room—anywhere, so that he be warmed and lighted—in the short days; and a piece of ground to tend during the summer months. If these were provided, few, very few, would be found to take pleasure in swallowing such wretched beverage as forms the staple drink of the lower orders (when they can get it).

However public writers may denounce the doctrines of the late Mr. Malthus, it is most certain that those doctrines are (it may be, unconsciously) acted upon by the upper and middle classes. One may appeal to public opinion in confirmation of this fact. How common is it to hear that the young men of the present day are “coldly calculating”—that there is a “false commercial estimate of marriage” only too prevalent among the well-to-do members of society!

Every reader of general history is acquainted with the fact, that patrician orders invariably decay; and England furnishes no exception to the rule. The upper class, failing to keep up their numbers, are continually recruited from below. The middle ranks give off some portion to replenish the void in the higher order; and themselves, in their turn, receive constant accessions from the working class. The operation of this law is within the knowledge of every one, and leads to the belief that the middle class increase but slowly, and, perhaps, remain nearly stationary, from the difficulty felt in obtaining a living in occupations into which those below eagerly press; and that the enormous addition, made yearly to the population, must be almost entirely obtained from the working classes.

The unhealthiness of towns and manufactures creates a necessity for supplies drawn from the rural districts; for, although a great number of births take place in towns, but a small proportion of the children reach maturity, despite the sanitary improvements that have taken place. Notwithstanding this absorption of a part of the redundant population of agricultural counties, and in spite of emigration, there is ever going on a morbid increase of rural labourers, which keeps them always in the same depressed state.

The only way in which the peasantry can be really benefited, is by raising altogether their standard of living, and by advocating a greater degree of personal prudence; but, more especially, in the matter of contracting marriage. The first step in the elevation of the labourer is universally admitted to be to improve his dwelling. Provision must be made for the decencies of life, and in course of time a taste for comfort will be fostered. Children, reared in a well-regulated home, are unwilling to forfeit, by marriage, conveniences, to which long use has habituated them. This effect, as already observed, is produced in the upper classes, who are, naturally, reluctant to descend in the social scale, and therefore put off marriage, until they feel able to maintain the position in which they have been educated.

Marriages take place *more than five times* as often in the working classes as they do in those above them. Taking the average of 17 years, ending 1857, to 100,000 persons living, there were 2,086 marriages of the labouring classes, and only 392 of the higher and middle classes.⁷ To avow that early and improvident marriages are at the root of much of the misery of the lower orders is Malthusianism—rank and undisguised. Mr. Malthus says, that a man ought not to marry until he has a fair prospect of being able to support the probable issue of a marriage, and that statement is impregnable. It is astonishing that so much abuse should have been lavished on a proposition so clear and undeniable. No one dares to affirm the direct contrary and

say, that as soon as puberty is reached, marriage ought to take place. This question has, after all, been decided in practice by the intelligent classes of the community. The habitual violators of the obvious rule of making some provision for the wants of a family are only the most ignorant persons. The Registrar-General remarks,^a "that the general law evidently is, that, in the counties where the women are the most ignorant, they marry in the largest proportions under 21 years of age, and *lose the largest numbers of their children.*"

The instances of Bedfordshire and London may be cited by way of contrast. In the former, of 1,000 men married, 427; of 1,000 women married, 492 could not write their names; in the latter, the men are 115, and the women 192, who signed the register by marks. Taking the same two, let us see the comparative proportion of minors. In Bedfordshire, of 10,000 men married, 1,175; of 10,000 women married, 2,537 were not of full age; whereas in London, the numbers are respectively, 274 and 1,211.

This general want of even the most elementary education is conspicuous from the fact, that throughout England, 28 in 100 of the men, and 39 in 100 of the women, could not write sufficiently to sign their names. Some persons are disposed to attribute the use of marks to nervousness on such an interesting occasion, but there is not much foundation for the idea. 'Nerves' belong to a higher rank. It seems far more probable that no man, or woman, who could sign his or her name, would miss the opportunity of doing so; for any one, acquainted with the peculiar feelings of the lower class, knows well how anxious each is to pass for a 'scholar'—an epithet applied to the possession of the mere acquirements of reading and writing. How the traditions of the Middle Ages linger! The being able to read was made the ground of acquittal of a prisoner so lately as the reign of Elizabeth; and, in the feeling above alluded to, is traced the idea of the value set on such an ability, handed down to the present day.

The spread of education, and, springing therefrom, clearer notions of the duties and responsibilities of marriage, cannot fail to have effect. It will be found not enough that two persons shall have reached a marriageable age, but they will further consider the fair probability of bringing up their children without leaning on public or private charity. It is not pretended that this end will be attained without difficulty; for to postpone present gratification to future good is a trial to human nature in whatever rank of life.

If young labourers would put by a portion of their earnings, beginning at 18 or 20, and continuing up to 27, or 28 years of age, they would have a little fund to start with on their marriage, besides that they would acquire experience, and learn practically the lessons of patience and self-denial. A similar delay would also benefit the other sex. As domestic servants, when treated with that kindness which is but their due, they would not hastily quit a home in which their food and lodging are superior to what they can expect in a cottage. These could also, by their savings, add to the joint fund; and marriage, undertaken under such auspices, could not but have a far better prospect of happiness than if contracted at a boy-and-girl age. The children of these deferred unions would be more carefully taught; and, with the examples of prudence and forethought set them by their parents, they would be likely to imitate those virtues in their own lives. To give the sober, steady, industrious labourer a fair chance, there must be an end to the scheme of coercing him into marriage, by making the position of a

^a Twentieth Annual Report [1859] of the Registrar-General, page vii.

single man as intolerable as possible. Any plan of cottage-improvement will be imperfect which does not include a provision for the unmarried husbandman, as well as for the older and more established Poor Law pet, the married man with seven or eight children.

Since mechanical inventions have so greatly superseded manual labour, there is the greater need for inculcating this branch of prudence. A labourer, with a young family rising around him, is as much 'bound to the soil' as any Villain of feudal times: he has forged his own chain, and must work at the oar for life. It would not be difficult to distort these remarks into opposition to marriage at all for working men until they are advanced in years. This has not been said, or implied. Let agricultural labourers marry at 20, if their earnings allow them to maintain, by their own exertions, a wife and family of the ordinary average number of children. All that is objected to, is their bringing helpless, hapless beings into existence, the burden of whose support is thrust on the shoulders of other people. To some minds, those unthinking parents, who have neglected these considerations and are, therefore, suffering from their imprudence, will appear to be martyrs, weighed down by misfortunes, which are attributable to indirect taxation, to having no voice in the election of representatives, to something—anything but the real cause.

The power to acquire property has great effect on the character in supplying an aim to the practice of frugality; but, in the case of the agricultural labourer, the cost of transferring land is an insuperable barrier to the purchase of a plot of ground on which he could gain an independent living. No hope can be held out to the peasant of raising himself to a position other than that of added comfort afforded by his savings,⁹ which, seeing the price paid for his labour, can never be considerable.

The influence of education in raising the habits of the working class is strongly urged by political economists. It must embrace something more than reading and writing. At present, having conveyed even these very partially, its results are scarcely discernible. Education should enable a man to think and act for himself, and to weigh methods of conduct against their consequences. The knowledge of a few plain and practical truths would render him less liable to fall a prey to the fluent eloquence of a 'people's friend.' He would learn how very slightly his condition would be affected by any share of political power, and how almost entirely on himself, on his own exertions—his own industry, frugality, and prudence—does his fortune depend; how no taxation, direct or indirect, can affect him half so much as the tax which he may voluntarily lay on himself by intemperance, or any other of the forms of multifarious improvidence.

Dr. Chalmers has ably pointed out, that in the elevation of the people the clergy may play a conspicuous and an honourable part. While setting forth those transcendent interests which relate to a future life, they may direct the attention of their flocks to "secondary and subordinate blessings." The discipline enjoined by Christianity, the looking to distant consequences, and the refinement of taste, caught from its precepts, form "the best guarantees against that impetuous appetency, which first leads to early marriages, and afterwards lands in squalid destitution, the teeming families that spring from them."¹⁰

It is most important that every effort, made by the labourer himself, and by those who wish

⁹ In the 16,000 parishes of England and Wales there are only 621 savings-banks, and, out of this number, 338 are open only *one day in each week for one or two hours*.

¹⁰ On Political Economy, page 124.

to ameliorate his condition, should have for its end his independence. It is impossible to exaggerate the good produced by the rich taking a personal interest in the poor, a feature so active and prominent in the social character of the age. Still, admitting this, and to the greatest extent, it may be owned that it is not quite satisfactory to find that the rental of a cottage is looked upon more as a favour to the occupant, than as a fair exchange between him and the proprietor. That is not an equitable bargain, which makes one take less than his due in order to benefit the other; as there is implied in it a sense of dependence. It would be better that the landowner should receive for his outlay a fair return, which the labourer should be able to pay out of his earnings. As the case stands, the cottager can live on lower wages, because the landowner pays part of his rent.

The interest of the resident population, no less than that of the proprietor, dictates that no cottages should be added to those already built in a parish, in which the numbers are in excess of profitable employment; as any surplus, however small, must inevitably depress the whole community, and reduce them to a low level of wages. It not unfrequently happens that in one county there is ample and remunerative employment for the whole class of labourers, while in an adjoining county (and even sometimes in a neighbouring parish) the lowest rate of wages is paid. And this state of things continues, when a free circulation of labour would benefit all parties. Every independent labourer moved away would make room for a pauper; the hands that are wanted for the extension of commerce and manufactures would be supplied; the ratepayers would be relieved, and pauperism restricted to the tender in years, the enfeebled by age, and those incapacitated by mental or bodily infirmity.

That wages are regulated entirely by the proportion between the number of workmen and the work to be done, and that they have no dependence on the price of food, is plain from the fact, that, whenever farming is brought into contact with mines and manufactures, the earnings of labourers are increased, although the cost of necessaries is alike throughout the country.

The theory of Malthus shows that no improvement can take place in the condition of the people, apart from their general intelligence, which leads to the formation of provident habits. That writer has proved, that if the labouring class—and they alone have the power—adjust the supply of the article in which they deal to the demand, they must obtain high wages, which will place within their reach the conveniences and some of the luxuries of life. If, on the other hand, they, or the great majority of them, abjure habits of prudential restraint; if they marry early, have large families, and thus add to their now excessive numbers, no development of the resources of the country and no increase of wealth can permanently benefit them.

The tendency of population to increase faster than the means of subsistence, is known and admitted. Therefore, while doing all in our power to raise the absolute quantity of provisions, we must endeavour at the same time to keep population somewhat behind, for in this way and no other, can the comforts of the classes, dependent on their labour, be effectually secured.

PRACTICAL REMARKS.

OBVIOUSLY, cottages should be erected, where required—on, or near to farms. It can scarcely be necessary to say that pure air and good water are the first essentials in every dwelling. In all ages of the world these two points have been regarded. It has been reserved for our own day to select sites of buildings for human habitation, in which little, or no attention is paid to one, or the other.

A great desideratum is, that cottages should adjoin a public road, both for the convenience and the cheerfulness of the occupants. Besides, next to churches they form the feature of English country scenery. Mansions are usually removed to some distance from the high road for the sake of retirement and seclusion, and thus rarely form more than distant objects in the landscape. Cottages, on the other hand, occur most frequently and agreeably in the immediate foreground; and therefore, though simple, they should exhibit picturesqueness of outline.

There is positive pain felt on seeing a row of cottages built in, what has been aptly stigmatized as, the 'pigeon-hole style,' with six or eight feet of garden-ground in front, hemmed in by a *neat* railing. Economy is pleaded in favour of these chill-striking buildings; but it may be doubted, in many cases, whether even this has been realized. There is something of the character of compulsory charity about them, instead of the hearty, spontaneous goodwill which the proprietor should feel towards his more lowly-placed countrymen.

Putting out of sight the general question of not offending public taste (a duty incumbent on all who build), it is surely desirable to give even a humble peasant something pleasing to 'look on,' as he returns home after his day's labour. The dictum of Lord Bacon, that "houses are built to live in and not to look on," is quoted, in support of his own cold views, by many a utilitarian who ignores the context, "therefore let use be preferred before uniformity, except where both may be had."

Assuming that no one will expect human beings to live without pure air and good water, we may go on to notice that all the rainfall should be received, filtered, and duly preserved for use. Any of the cottages in this book would receive on the roof sufficient rain to afford an ample supply for daily consumption, even without the subsidiary aid of well-water, which is to be considered absolutely necessary. The rain-water may flow into a tank beneath the ground, or into a cistern.

A cottage should be placed (when practicable) on the ridge of a gentle slope, in order to keep the building dry by having a fall for the surface-water each way. The immediate neighbourhood of large and lofty trees should be avoided, but these at a little distance on the north and north-west form a screen from wind and storms. The aspect should be such as to obtain

If some points of the subject are here alone touched upon, and the endeavour is made to avoid, as far as possible, technicalities, which

for the living-room the whole of the afternoon light, as this economizes candle, especially when the days are short. When there are windows on two sides of the room, they should face, respectively, south and west. If there be only one window, it should face south-west. In double cottages it is evident that a compromise must be effected, and as near an approach as possible made to the arrangement mentioned.

The foundation is an all-important item for consideration. If the soil be not gravelly, or stony, an artificial substratum must be formed with concrete, about a foot thick, and six inches wider on each side than the lowest footing-course. The main object being to prevent partial, or unequal settlements, the depth of the footings will vary according to the nature of the soil; but two feet, or two feet six inches, are usual. The ground enclosed by the walls underneath the floor should be cleared to a depth of *not less than a foot* below the underside of the joists. Iron gratings in the walls will allow a circulation of air and preserve the timber from decay. One or two courses of slate, to keep the damp from rising, must be laid entirely through the walls at the floor-level.

The material for the walls would naturally be that to be found in the locality. There seems no necessity, in these days of easy intercommunication, to resort to building cottages of mud, or clay. However a Devonshire man may be disposed to sing the praises of cob houses, it can scarcely be maintained, that the time consumed in their erection, and the unsatisfactory character of the material, are not arguments against the employment of cob.

When walls are built of *hollow brick*, warmth and comfort are obtained by effectually excluding the damp. Ordinary bricks may be used in several ways to obtain hollow walls. One method is by placing them on edge, alternately lengthwise and endwise, or *stretcher* and *header*. Another is, a course of stretchers on edge, inside and out, leaving a space of three inches, and this course is covered by one of headers, laid in the ordinary way, and so on alternately. Mr. Roberts, in his "Dwellings for the Labouring Classes," mentions a plan of using hollow bricks made wedge-shaped, and bonded longitudinally over each other, so that cavities run parallel through every course of bricks, giving a double security against moisture, as the joints are all broken, and there are no headers to pass through the wall. The rise of these bricks is three courses to the foot; they are twelve inches long, and the joints are consequently diminished in number. Again, common bricks may be employed by building walls eleven inches thick, the stretchers leaving a hollow of two inches, the headers being backed in each course with closers.

Flint walls, bonded and lined with brick, are common in some districts; and, when built in good mortar, they become very hard and durable. Where an intractable limestone is the only material, and this is laid in rubble-wallings, *rough cast* may be used to coat the exterior, or it may be covered with slates.¹²

Of all materials, stone is undoubtedly the best. Walls built of stone should be eighteen inches thick on the ground floor, and not less than sixteen inches in the chamber story. Bricks may be employed very conveniently below for the inner partitions in order to economize space, and wood quarter partitions to inclose and divide the bedrooms.

The entrance-door should have a step of eight (or, not less than six) inches above the

¹² Some houses in the old part of Plymouth have on the walls courses of slate with the under edge cut in various forms, each variety occupying five or six courses. A similar kind of ornamentation is met with in Switzerland. The chalets are lined on the outside with thin boards, engraved on the lower edge.

ground, and in every case should open into a lobby, or porch, and not into the general living room.¹³ Doors, as a rule, should be hung so as to screen any one sitting at the fireplace. In the corner of a room the door should be hung at the angle, so as to open against the wall.

It is, doubtless, desirable to make a staircase fire-proof,¹⁴ but this is done only at increased expense. The system not being adopted for the better class of houses, it is hopeless to look for it in cottages.

The floors of the living-room and bedrooms should be of wood. The porch, scullery, passage, &c. may be paved with brick on edge, or tiles. If the cottagers were themselves consulted, they would probably be found to prefer a brick, or tiled floor to one of wood, from its being more readily cleansed. An objection to wood-floors is, that they retain the damp so long after washing. It sounds very like mockery to suggest that a labourer might cover the middle of the tiled floor with matting or drugget, as to purchase either would be beyond his scanty means. If tiles are used, glazed tiles, carefully laid on sand with a deep layer of coarse gravel, or stone, are to be preferred.

Other kinds of flooring are sometimes used. Lime-ash floors, compounded of two-thirds sand and one-third lime ashes, are common in Devonshire and Somersetshire. Unless very well laid and allowed a fortnight, or more, to consolidate, they are liable to crumble with constant treading, or the moving of heavy articles. Asphalte is recommended by some on account of its cheapness; but, as the object of improving the dwellings of the peasantry is to raise their ideas of comfort, these floors are not desirable. They partake more or less of a hut-like character, and serve to keep up an ugly comparison between the attention given to our horses and dogs and the consideration shown to our fellow-creatures.

Roof-coverings should be of tile, or slate, following the use of the neighbourhood. Thatch is more picturesque and warmer than either, but is now usually abandoned on account of its being so combustible. When thatch is adopted, the roof should have a steep pitch, and the valleys should be carefully joined; as rain is apt to work its way into the thatch, which, however thick or well laid, is not always proof against it. Plain tiles¹⁵ look better than slate, but are expensive, as they require stronger rafters to support them. Slates are usually chosen on account of their lightness, and because they save cost in the roof-timbers. Care should be taken that they lap one over the other three inches, or not less than two inches and a half. Slate ridges are made, and may therefore supersede lead. It is important to select slates of a good colour. They should not be too blue, as they then form too strong a contrast in colour with the walls. Westmoreland slates may be recommended.

It is desirable (when the means allow) to use lead for flashing the chimney stacks, where they abut on the roof. In common buildings, pointing with mortar is the usual method. This requires constant repair, as the continued action of rain causes the mortar to peel off and washes an unsightly limestreak down the roof.

Cast-iron semicircular eaves-gutters, five inches diameter, are sufficient for the roofs. They may be laid nearly (or quite) level, if the heads of the rainwater pipes are kept clear of birds' nests and dead leaves.

¹³ Space is saved by partitioning off for the entrance a square in one corner of the living-room. This has an unsightly appearance, and is, therefore, not adopted in the present plans.

¹⁴ Fires can only happen through the grossest negligence. It is enough that people use ordinary precaution. We are all far too ready

to look upon such disasters as accidents, or visitations of Providence, whereas they are due alone to our stupid carelessness.

¹⁵ Pantiles are hideous for houses. They are less offensive as covering for sheds and outbuildings.

Gutters between roofs, or at the back of chimneys, must be formed in lead, and the latter turned well up under the slates—usually eight inches—to prevent wet from driving in.

In the designs given no plaster ceilings are proposed throughout the ground story. The bedroom floor joists are to be planed and stained, or planed only.¹⁶ These have a far better appearance than a flat whitened ceiling, and are more suitable to this class of building. In the bedrooms the rafters are lathed and plastered, and the roof-collars also. The latter determine the height of the room.

Windows should have lead quarry lights, one or two in each window being made as casements to open outwards. The sill of the lower windows should be placed at a height above the floor, that would allow a person sitting in the room to see out. An ironing-table may be fixed beneath the living-room window, hinged so as to let down at pleasure. (See Plate 12.)

Ventilation must be provided independently of the windows, which are to admit *light*. The breathed-out air should have an escape made for it in *every room*. It is now known how injurious it is to the health to exist in a breath-tainted atmosphere. From the forced smallness of the rooms (by reason of expense) in cottages, it is more necessary in them than in any building to attend to ventilation. The chief requirement is simplicity. Draught would be avoided by providing the fireplace with a distinct air-flue. The fire would then draw a supply direct from the outer air, instead of collecting it from the chinks of doors and windows.

Fresh air should be admitted, not at the floor-level, but at a height of five feet, the openings being placed where they would cause the least inconvenience to the inmates. The return of the chimney-breast to the wall may be suggested. The vitiated air should escape at the ceiling line,¹⁷ either into the open air, or (a better plan) into a separate flue, formed in the chimney-stack. Instead of the latter, a zinc tube would suffice, which might run up one angle of the bedroom chimney-flue. *Every bedroom* should have an opening in the ceiling, communicating with the roof, and thence with the outer atmosphere. The vitiated air would pass at once from the sleeping occupants, a fresh supply being obtained from the staircase over the door-heads.

The common earthenware pan and trap, fitted with a tap and service-pipe from the cistern, should be provided for the water-closets. It is better to place these near to the cottage, or within the wall of the main building, if without direct communication with the interior. No device of surrounding these outbuildings with shrubbery ever conceals their real use. Exist they must somewhere, and the main point is to make them inoffensive. As we have not to deal with the barbarians of modern Italy, but with teachable persons of cleanly habits, a great advance may be made on the usual cottage arrangements; for, as inward morality is in all cases to be the end, so outward decency is an active means to secure it. The refuse water from the scullery-sink may be conducted into the soil-pan. The soil should be taken by oval drainpipes, six inches deep, to a manure-tank, at as great a distance from the house as possible, avoiding altogether the use of ordinary cesspools.

Cottage grates should be small and narrow from back to front, for the sake of saving fuel. Half the modern grates are simple nuisances, and admirably contrived to burn a *maximum* of coal and give out a *minimum* of heat.

¹⁶ A common practice in Yorkshire, even in farmhouses.

¹⁷ An objection may as well be anticipated. It might be said, that by doing away with a plaster ceiling, the joists would form troughs to receive the foul air, hold it and then allow it, when cooled, to drop down again into the room. This is prevented by cutting the top of the joists at intervals of, say three feet; or, by having at the end of each joist a longitudinal (the joists being transverse) communication with the air-duct.

The kitchen (or scullery) should be fitted with a boiler. There should be also a sink, dished out, and provided with inch supply and waste pipe. The tap for the former should be placed high enough to admit of a pail being set underneath. The waste pipe should be trapped, and all drains, so as to exclude foul air from the interior of the house.

Bedrooms might have fittings for washing fixed in each room. Very generally, ablutions are made on the sinkstone in wooden bowls by males and females. Better habits should, on every account, be encouraged.

Closets (cupboards) are absolutely required in every room. They allow miscellaneous articles to be put out of the way, and are conducive to tidiness.

The living-room should have a chair-rail, two feet eight inches from the floor to the under side, and three inches deep (see Details). The wall above should be papered with a diaper pattern, and not ugly, unmeaning festoons of natural and unnatural foliage.¹⁸ Beneath the rail, the wall may be painted a brownish red.¹⁹ Then muddy boots, sacks, wet clothes, &c. will not play that havoc which these articles do with a whitewashed wall. The skirtings should be of cement and the angles rounded so as to allow the scrubbing-brush to search out the corners. When wood skirtings are used, no wood should pass across the breasts of chimneys. The poor man, it is true, can have but one fire alight at a time, and there is little risk; still sound building requires that *accidents* should be avoided.

It seems quite superfluous to advise circular flues, formed of pottery. The venerable fourteen by nine inches flue has too firm a hold on the building mind to be done away with. In stone the corresponding (though rather larger) size is a foot square. Bedroom flues may be nine inches square.

Much as they are insisted on, it cannot be necessary that *every* cottage should have three sleeping-rooms. Of course, where there are children of both sexes, three are *indispensable*. To oblige two newly-married persons to occupy as much space as another couple with eight or nine children, is a method not unworthy of the famed Procrustes. A cottage with two bedrooms would furnish ample (prospective) accommodation for some years for a recently-wedded pair. Again, an aged couple may have a grown-up son, or daughter at home; or, the parents of husband, or wife, may continue under the same roof—at least for a time. These contingencies, and others that might be readily imagined, point to the advisability of building *some* cottages with two bedrooms. There are two such instances given (Nos. 1 and 2); but, having due respect for the popular feeling, the author has thought it necessary to give in a subsequent plate (A) plans for providing each of the abovenamed with *three* bedrooms, retaining the general character of the elevations.

Though not coming exactly within the scope of the present subject, it may be hinted, in conclusion that, as the aim ever to be kept in view is to raise the labourer in his own and public estimation, his domestic privacy must be respected. Well-meaning persons appear to think that these lower classes are to be broken in upon at any moment—lectured, preached to, and advised. We may be quite sure that on many, if not most occasions, our ‘room is preferred to our company.’ Let us gain respect by respecting them, and win, rather than coerce, these humble people.

¹⁸ Happily, these wretched productions have of late given place to *designs*, made by Mr. Owen Jones, so that any one who chooses new walls prepared, without feeling depressed and annoyed, when he looks round the room.

¹⁹ Say, such a colour as the Gallery of Antiquities at the British Museum.

GENERAL DESCRIPTION OF PLATES.

No. 1.—A double cottage in brick with two bedrooms. It has been thought desirable (as already explained) to give designs for cottages with two sleeping-rooms, as being suited to many contingencies likely to occur, and which need not be repeated. Here all the necessary offices are contained under one roof. The dimensions of the several rooms are:—

	ft.	ins.	ft.	ins.
Living-room - - - - -	12	6	10	6
Scullery - - - - -	8	0	7	6
2 Bedrooms, each - - - - -	10	0	7	0

A building of a single story is more convenient for young children, or old people, than one in which stairs are to be mounted. Some saving might have been effected by omitting the passage. To have done so would have been to incur the inconvenience of entering one room through another. A detail of the living-room window is to be found in Plate No. 10.

Estimated cost - - - - - £250.*

No. 2.—A single cottage in brick. This, like the preceding, contains the offices under the same roof and has but two bedrooms. These are placed in an upper floor, approached by stairs from the living-room.

	ft.	ins.	ft.	ins.
Living-room - - - - -	13	0	11	0
Scullery - - - - -	8	6	8	0
Bedroom - - - - -	14	6	8	4½
Ditto - - - - -	12	3	11	4½
Height from floor to floor - - - - -	8	9		
" of Bedrooms - - - - -	8	6		

Estimated cost - - - - - £125.

By carrying up the porch (given in detail, Plate No. 10) to meet the main roof, and taking the same line for the eaves, a window might be

obtained, and thus opportunity afforded for dividing the larger bedroom by a partition into two rooms, each, 11' 4½" × 6' 0", exclusive of the recess, in which is the (supposed) window over the porch doorway. These two rooms might be used for the parents and the girls; the boys occupying the remaining room.

Plate A.—Alternative plans for designs Nos. 1 and 2. In this plate are shown two plans, by which each of the previously-given designs may have three bedrooms.

No. 1.—A slight variation is made by introducing a porch, the roof of which would be a lean-to against that side containing the bedrooms. As a greater number of persons are accommodated, the rooms are increased in size, thus:—

	ft.	ins.	ft.	ins.
Living-room - - - - -	13	6	12	6
Scullery - - - - -	9	0	6	0
2 Bedrooms, each - - - - -	11	0	7	6
Third Bedroom - - - - -	9	0	7	0

Estimated cost - - - - - £265.

No. 2.—The principal difference consists in allowing a little more space to the living-room. The stairs, under which is a closet, are placed in the corner near the fireplace and land for the first bedroom at a lower level than that of the others. In the last-named are fireplaces, the flues of which, gathered over in the centre to a chimney, necessitate a gable, instead of the roof being hipped, as in the former design.

	ft.	ins.	ft.	ins.
Living-room - - - - -	14	0	12	9
Scullery - - - - -	9	0	9	1½
Bedroom - - - - -	14	9	9	4½
Ditto - - - - -	12	7½	6	6
Ditto - - - - -	9	6	8	0

Estimated cost - - - - - £130

* The designs were placed for estimates in the hands of a person in the country, thoroughly conversant with this class of building. The expense would vary somewhat according to the locality and the cost of carriage and labour. The prices include all necessary fittings, with the exception of cisterns and pumps

No. 3.—Single cottage in stone. This building, intended for a lodge, or gamekeeper's residence, is made more ornamental than the two preceding. The staircase is kept distinct from the rooms, and the offices are within the main roof. The scullery has a fireplace, as well as a boiler, for each of which a separate flue is provided.

	ft.	ins.	ft.	ins.
Living-room	14	0	11	0
Scullery	8	6	8	0
Bedroom	14	0	7	0
Ditto	10	9	7	6
Ditto	9	0	8	0
Height from floor to floor	9	0		
" of Bedrooms	8	0		

Estimated cost £130.

No. 4.—Double cottage in stone. There is necessarily no great variety in plans of buildings, requiring exactly the same number of rooms. The plan usually takes the form of **L** or **T**, the projecting arm making an entrance, &c. below, and a bedroom above. These two cottages are alike, except that one has a staircase apart. In the other, the stairs communicate with the kitchen; an arrangement which saves some expense, but is, in other respects, not desirable. The accommodation (with the exception just named) is the same in each building.

	ft.	ins.	ft.	ins.
Living-room	14	0	11	0
Kitchen	11	0	9	0
Bedroom	14	6	11	0
Ditto	11	0	9	0
Ditto	10	0	7	0
Height from floor to floor	9	0		
" of Bedrooms	8	0		

Estimated cost £250.

No. 5. Double cottage in stone. There are undoubted advantages in a plan, which (as here) gets all the fireplaces in inside walls. A picturesque feature is obtained by the double gable. The rain-water pipe is a sad necessity. Almost universally pipes disfigure a building. In stone houses (like the present) there is nothing for it but to paint them drab, or grey, in order to make them as little conspicuous as possible. We may covet the Mediaeval gargoyle, or leaden spout; but, as the rainwater is not to be wasted, pipes

there must be. Some expense is entailed by a gutter between the two roofs, as lead is a costly metal; and, to get the requisite fall and drips, the gutter must be wide at the starting point. The outbuildings, placed back to back, may be covered with one roof, and above the coal-place may be a cistern to supply the kitchens of both houses with soft water.

	ft.	ins.	ft.	ins.
Living-room	13	0	11	0
Kitchen	11	9	9	0
Store-closet	9	0	6	6
Bedroom	13	0	11	6
Ditto	11	9	8	0
Ditto	10	0	9	0
Height from floor to floor	9	0		
" of Bedrooms	8	3		

Estimated cost £250.

** From the reduced thickness of the walls (16"), these rooms would be 4 inches longer than the sizes given.

No. 6.—Group of three cottages in brick. The two outer cottages resemble in plan those shown in Plate No. 4. The bargeboards and dormers are introduced to give some character to the design. In other points the buildings are very simple. The walls are 14" below and 9" above. If procurable, stone should be substituted for brick in the sills of the windows. If bricks are used, they should be set in cement. The upper story may have hollow walls by using common bricks to a thickness of 11 inches, as elsewhere described. It is evident that some expense could be saved by doing away with the bargeboards, and showing the plain rafters, which they cover. The dormers might also be simplified.

	ft.	ins.	ft.	ins.
Two outer Cottages.				
Living-room	14	0	12	0
Kitchen	12	0	8	0
Bedroom	14	9	12	9
Ditto	12	9	8	6
Ditto	10	9	7	0
Centre Building.				
Living-room	14	6	13	6
Kitchen	11	3	8	0
Bedroom	11	6	9	9
Ditto	11	0	8	0
Ditto	11	0	8	0
Height from floor to floor	9	0		
" of Bedrooms	8	0		

Estimated cost £400.

No. 7.—Row of four cottages in a village street. These buildings might be continued to any even number, if the centre gable be retained; or, without it, to any number, odd or even, by repeating a series of gables with the dormer window between them, as seen on the right and left of the 'elevation.' There is one line of façade, with a slight recess, in which is the entrance doorway, screened by a small lean-to roof. A low kerb with a railing preserves the line of front. The space thus enclosed might be appropriated to flowering plants in pots.

	ft.	ins.	ft.	ins.
Living-room - - - - -	14	0	12	0
Kitchen - - - - -	12	0	8	0
Pantry - - - - -	5	6	4	9
Bedroom - - - - -	12	0	11	0
Ditto - - - - -	12	0	7	6
Ditto - - - - -	10	6	8	6
Height from floor to floor - - -	9	3		
" of Bedrooms - - - - -	8	0		
" to plate in Bedrooms - - -	6	0		

Estimated cost - - - - - £550.

* By canting the angle (as shown in the extreme house to right and left on 'chamber plan'), the space, marked 'closet' may be thrown into the bedroom, making it the same size as the room below, 14' 0" x 12' 0".

Nos. 8 and 9.—Sections of the foregoing designs. These constructional drawings, though necessary to the builder, are very uninteresting even to professional persons. They serve to give some idea of the internal finishings, and, the heights of the rooms being figured, explain the elevations.

Nos. 10, 11, 12, and 13.—In these plates various details of windows, &c. are given to an intelligible scale. They are carefully drawn and accurately figured, and will assist a country builder in carrying out the several designs. They are available also for adding, or making alterations, to old cottages. Take, for instance, the porch in No. 10. This may be employed for any existing building, and so of the window on the same plate.

No. 14.—Sketches of chimneys. The remark, above made, applies also to this plate. Though actually sketches of the chimneys occurring in the foregoing designs, they are applicable to any others, and may be counterchanged in any of these cottages, but observing the different characters of brick and stone buildings. To represent them as they would appear in execution, they are drawn in *perspective*. Plans of some of the stacks are given. It has been already stated that circular flues are much better than quadrangular ones. For the larger size, 10 or 12 inches diameter would be ample; for the smaller, 8 or 9 inches diameter.

Nos. 15, 16, 17, 18, 19, and 20.—These six plates are views of the designs Nos. 1 to 7, and demand no particular notice. In the view of No. 3 (Plate 16), the artist, with a pardonable leaning to the picturesque, has omitted to have the palings mended. Near a gentleman's residence these matters are better ordered. Every care has been taken with the views that, while they are exact representations of the buildings, they shall be no less truthful pictures of country scenery.

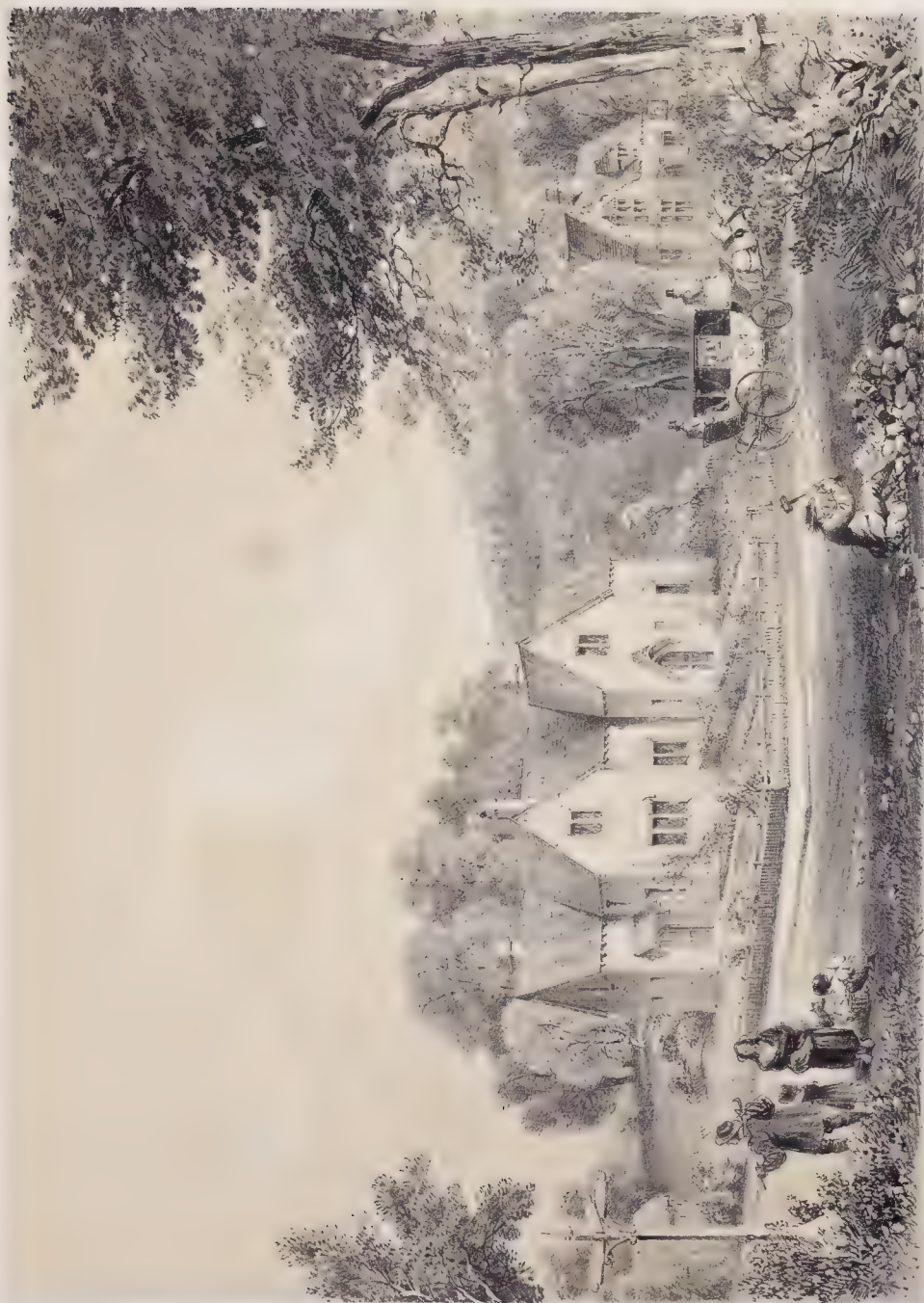




















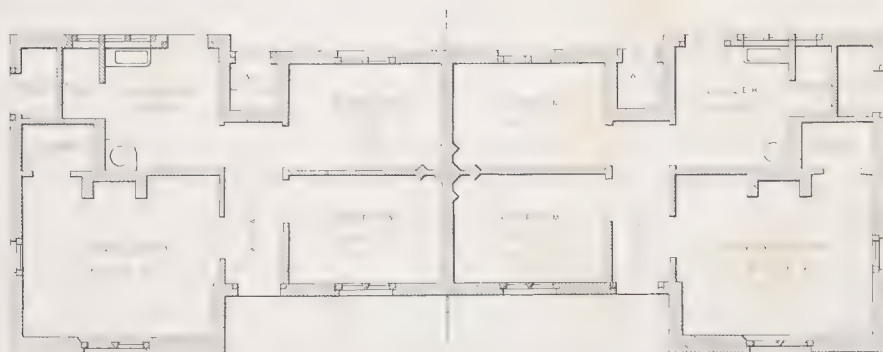




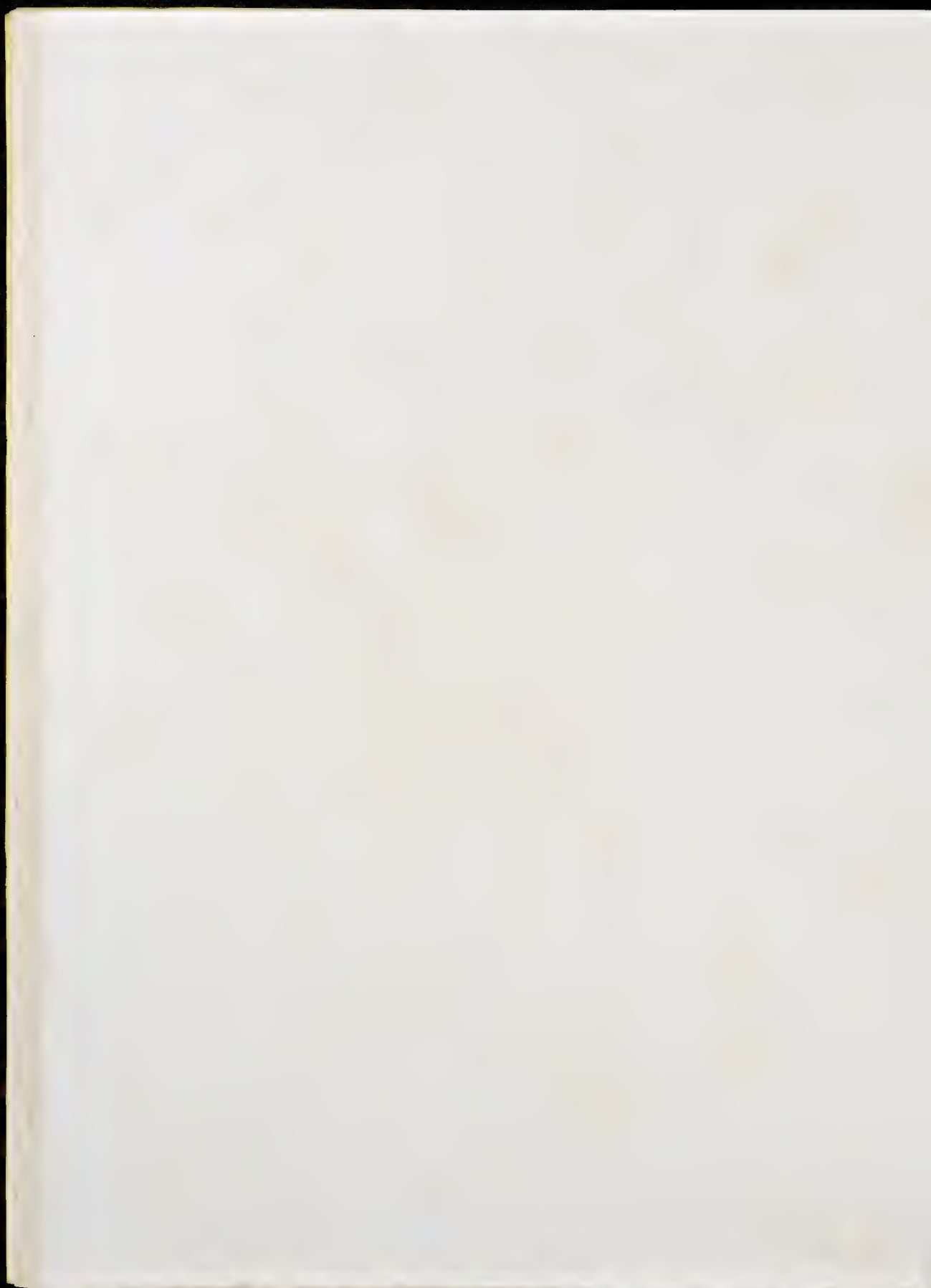




ELEVATION



FLOOR PLAN

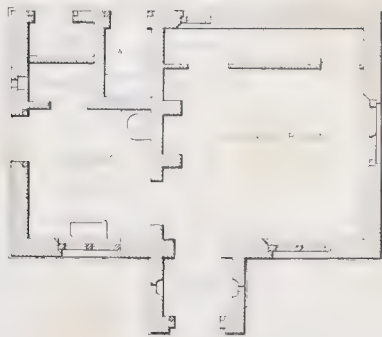




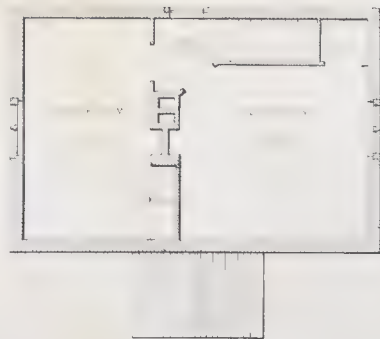
FRONT ELEVATION



SIDE ELEVATION



FRONT PLAN



REAR PLAN



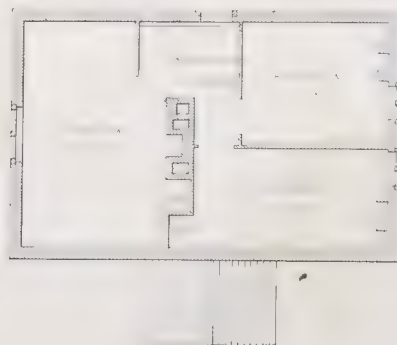
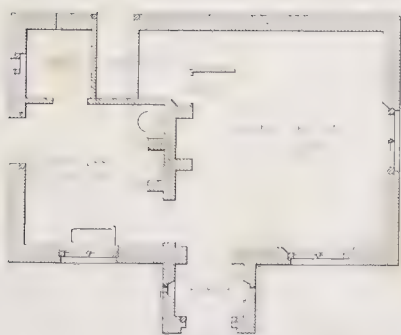
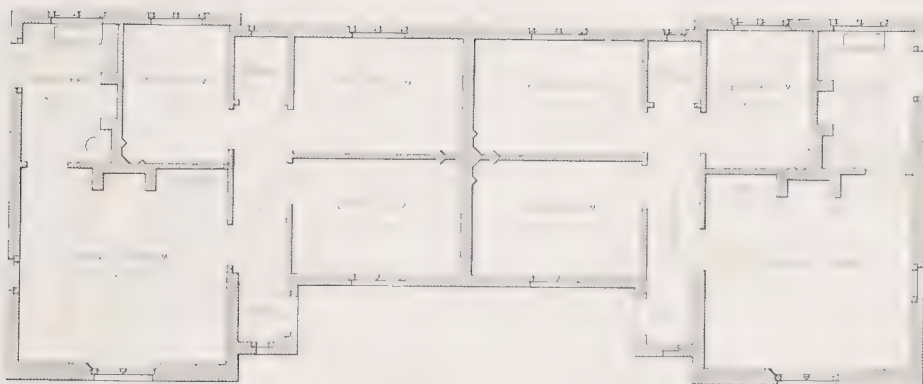






FIG. 1. FRONT ELEVATION.



FIG. 2. SIDE ELEVATION.

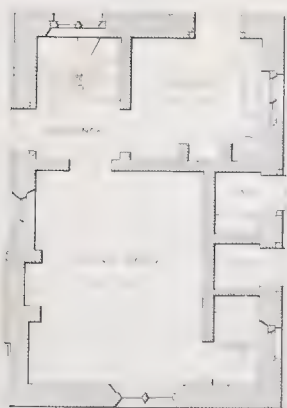


FIG. 3. FLOOR PLAN.

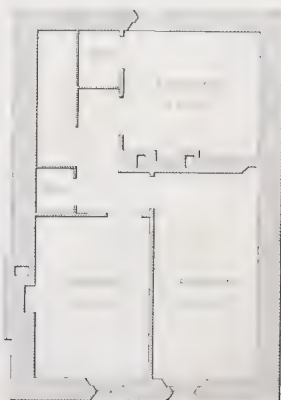


FIG. 4. FLOOR PLAN.

Scale of Feet
0 10 20 30 40 50 60 70 80 90 100



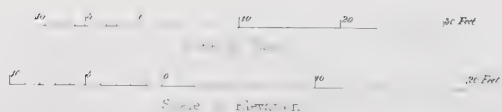


FRONT ELEVATION



1st FLOOR

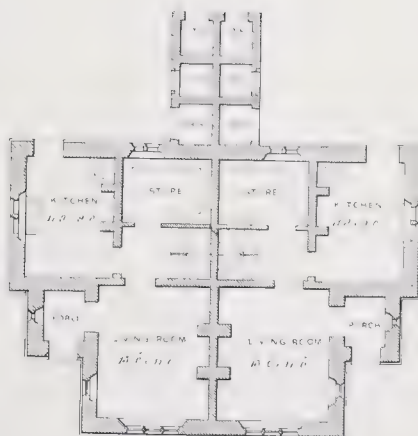
2nd FLOOR



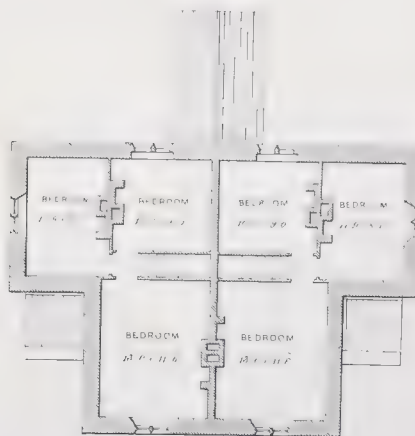




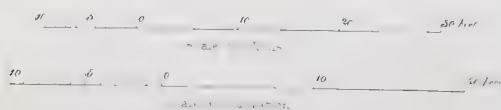
FRONT ELEVATION

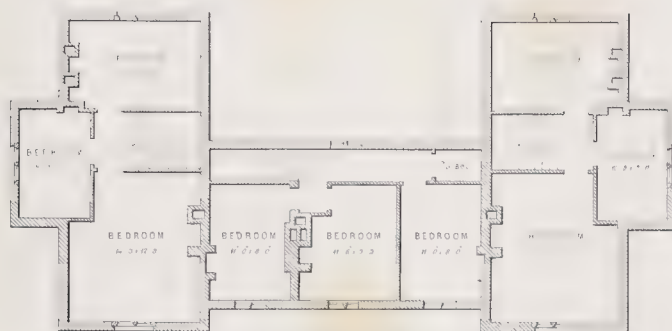


GROUND PLAN



FIRST FLOOR PLAN





FIRST FLOOR PLAN



SECOND FLOOR PLAN

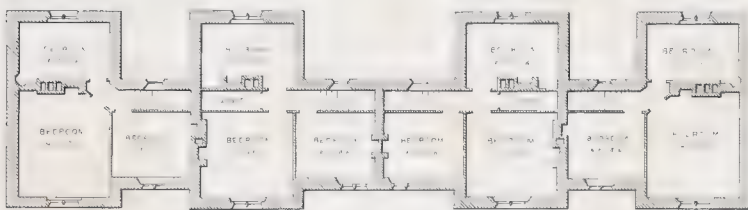
SECTION

SECTION

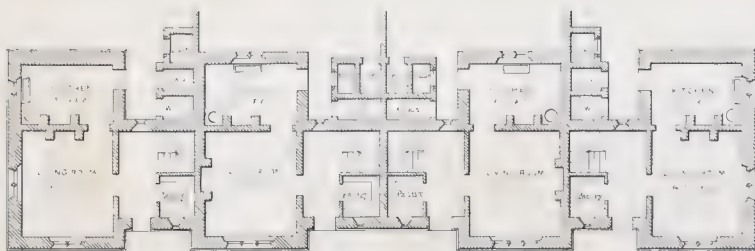




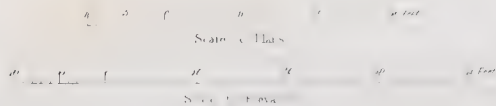
ELEVATION

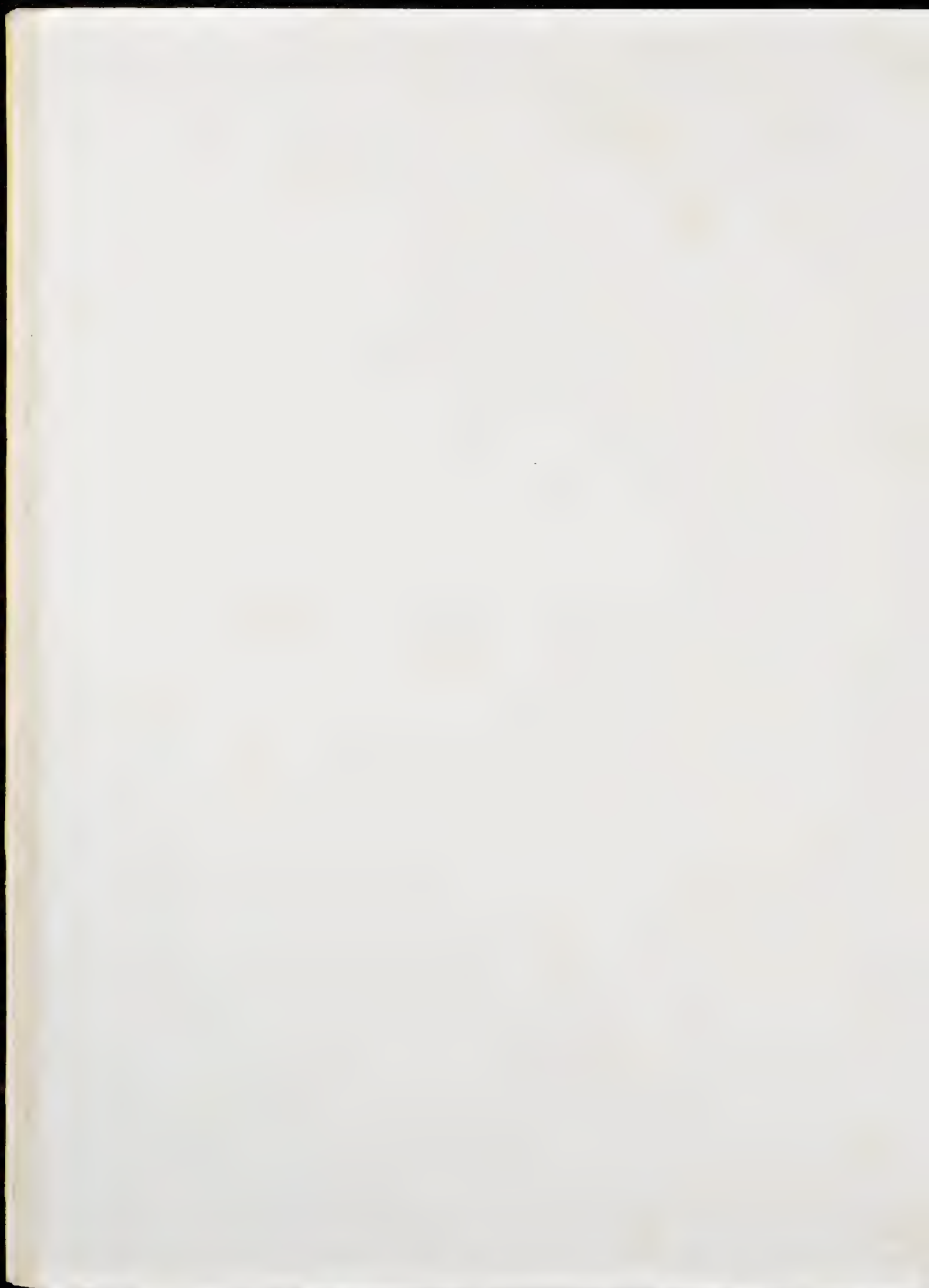


FIRST FLOOR

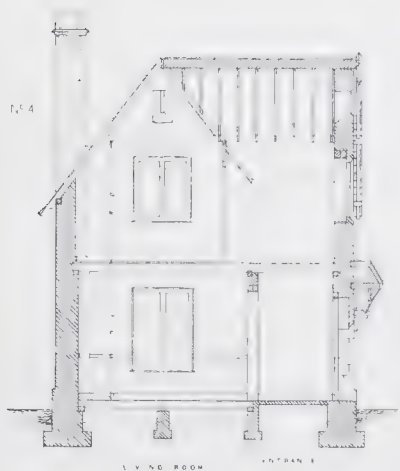
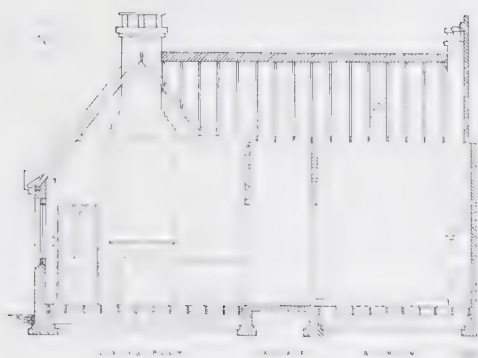


SECOND FLOOR



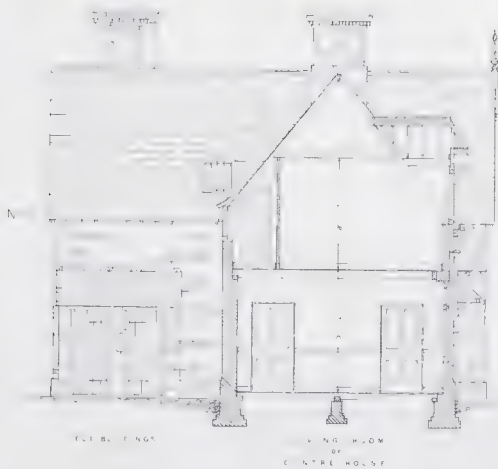


SECTIONS

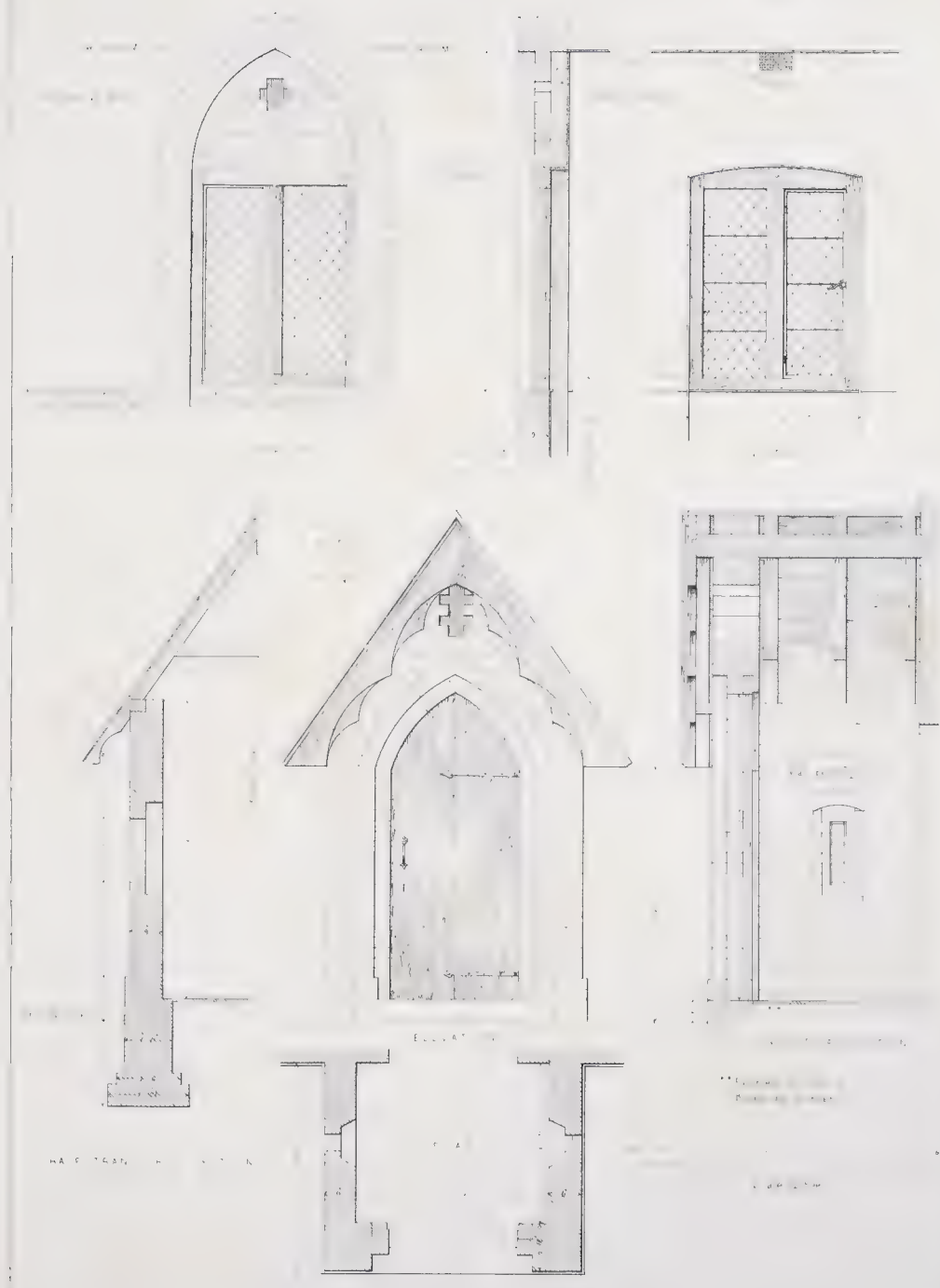


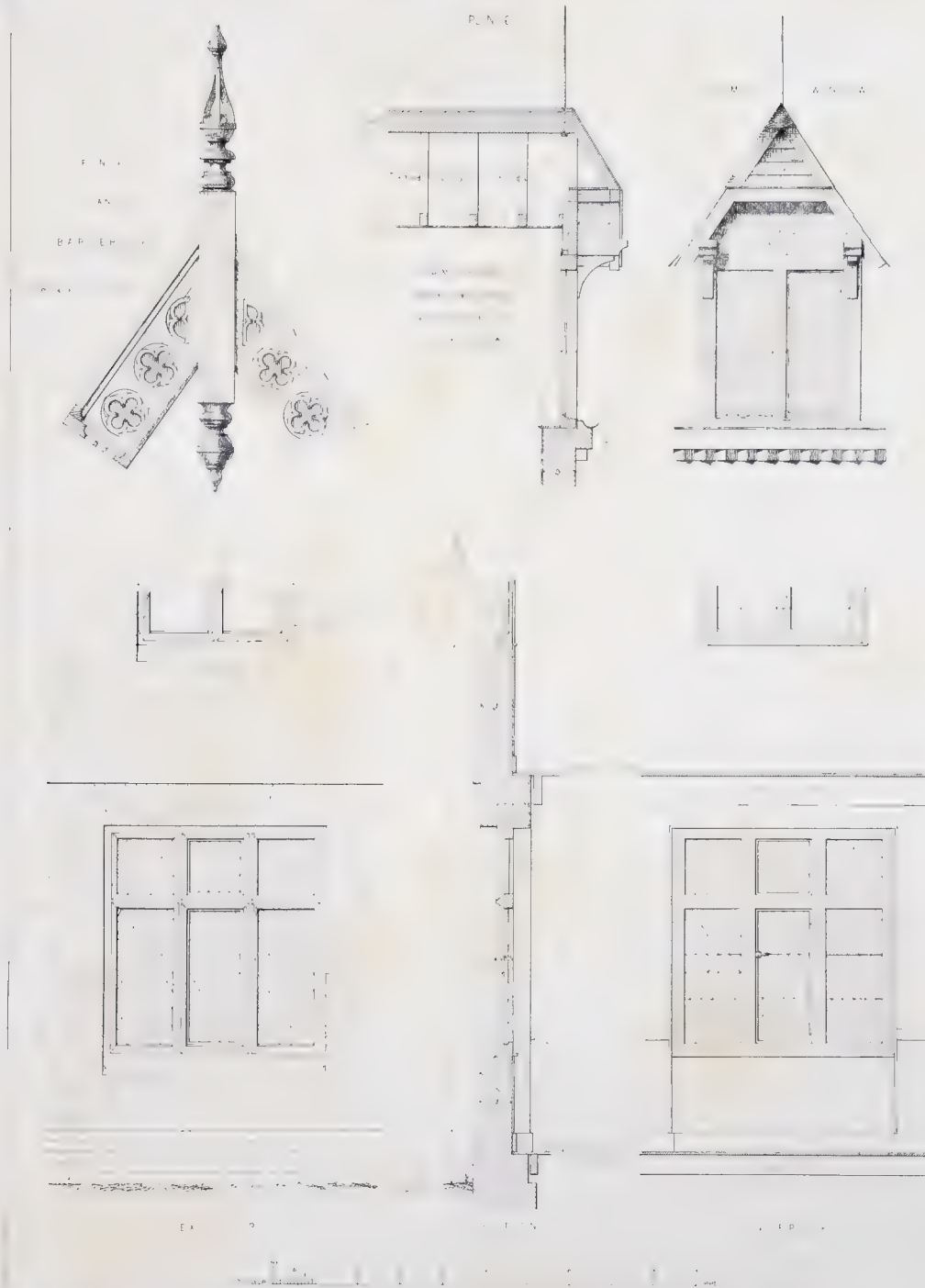
Scale of Feet



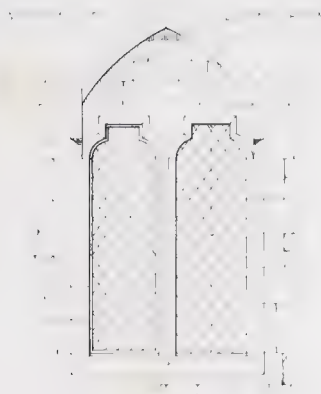




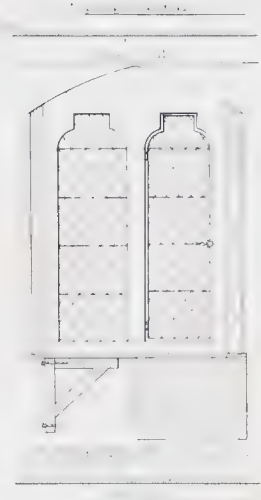




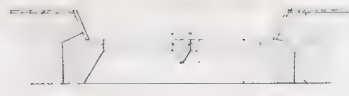




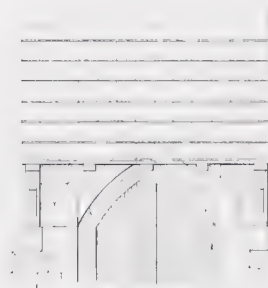
WINDOW ELEVATION



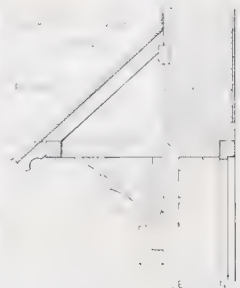
WINDOW ELEVATION



SECTION



WINDOW ELEVATION



SECTION



SECTION



SECTION

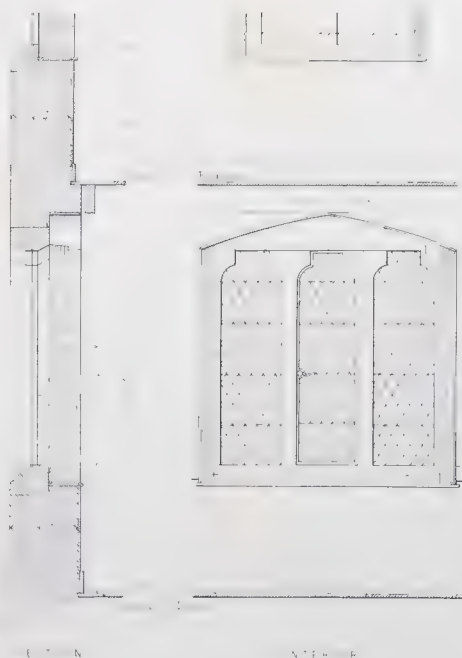
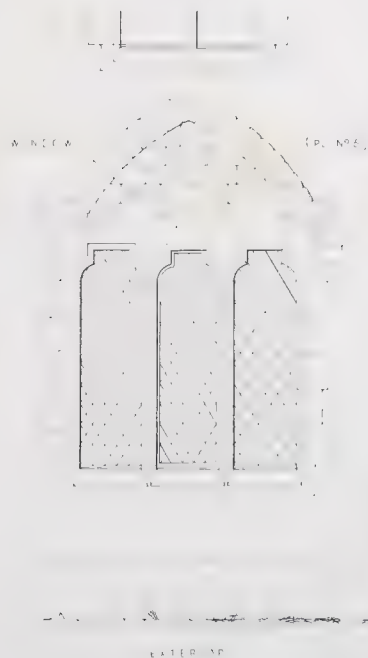
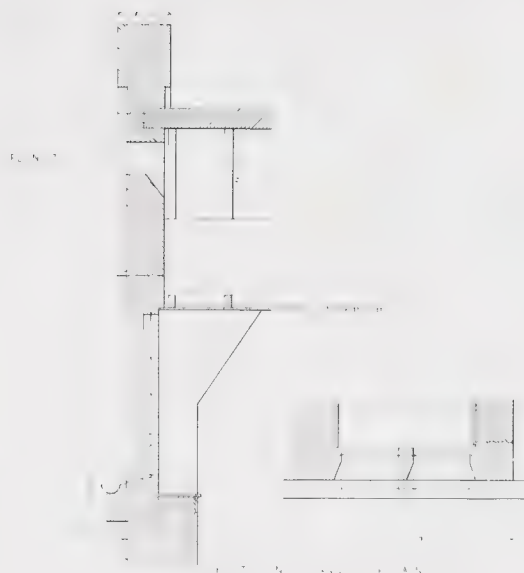


WINDOW ELEVATION



SECTION

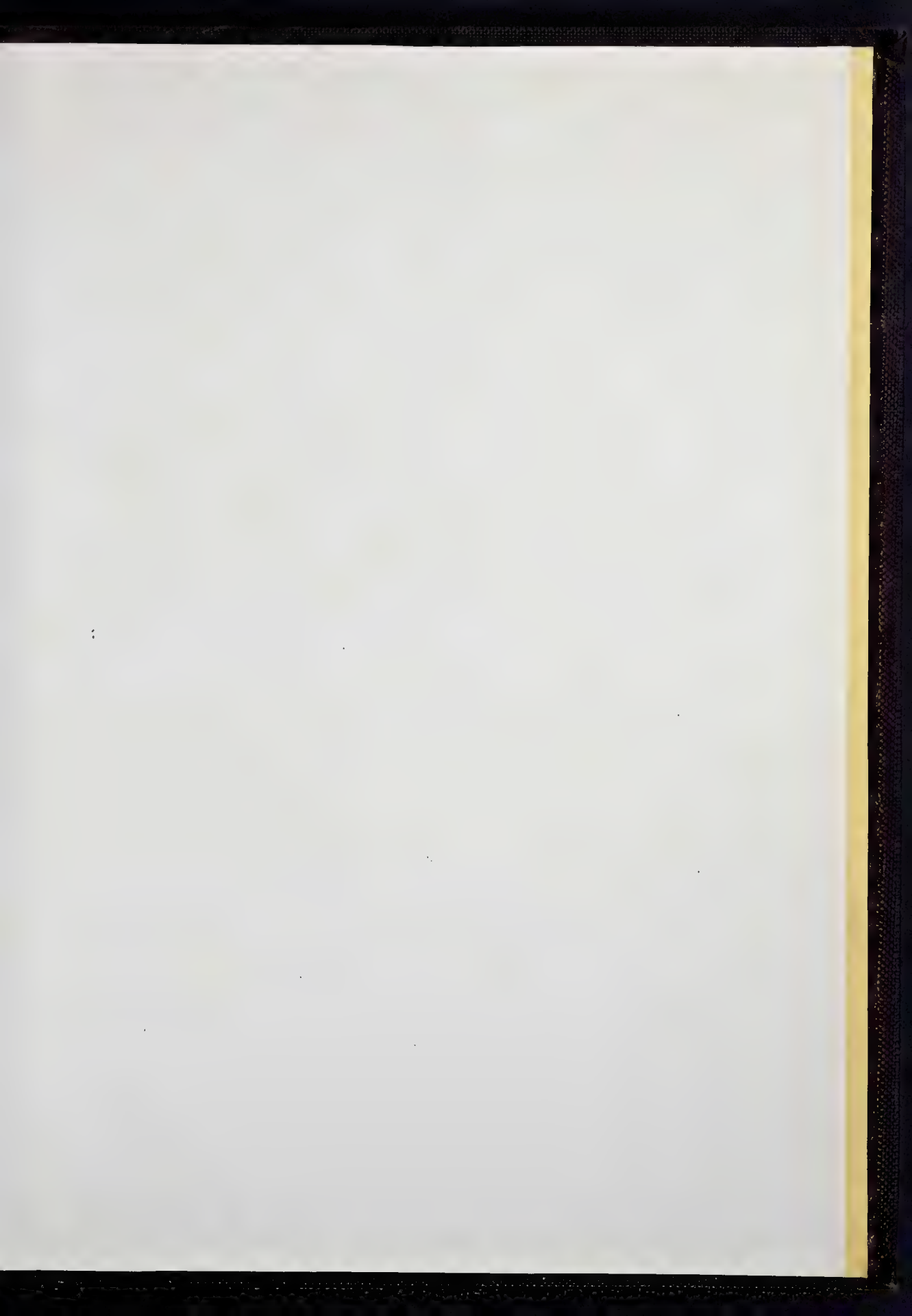


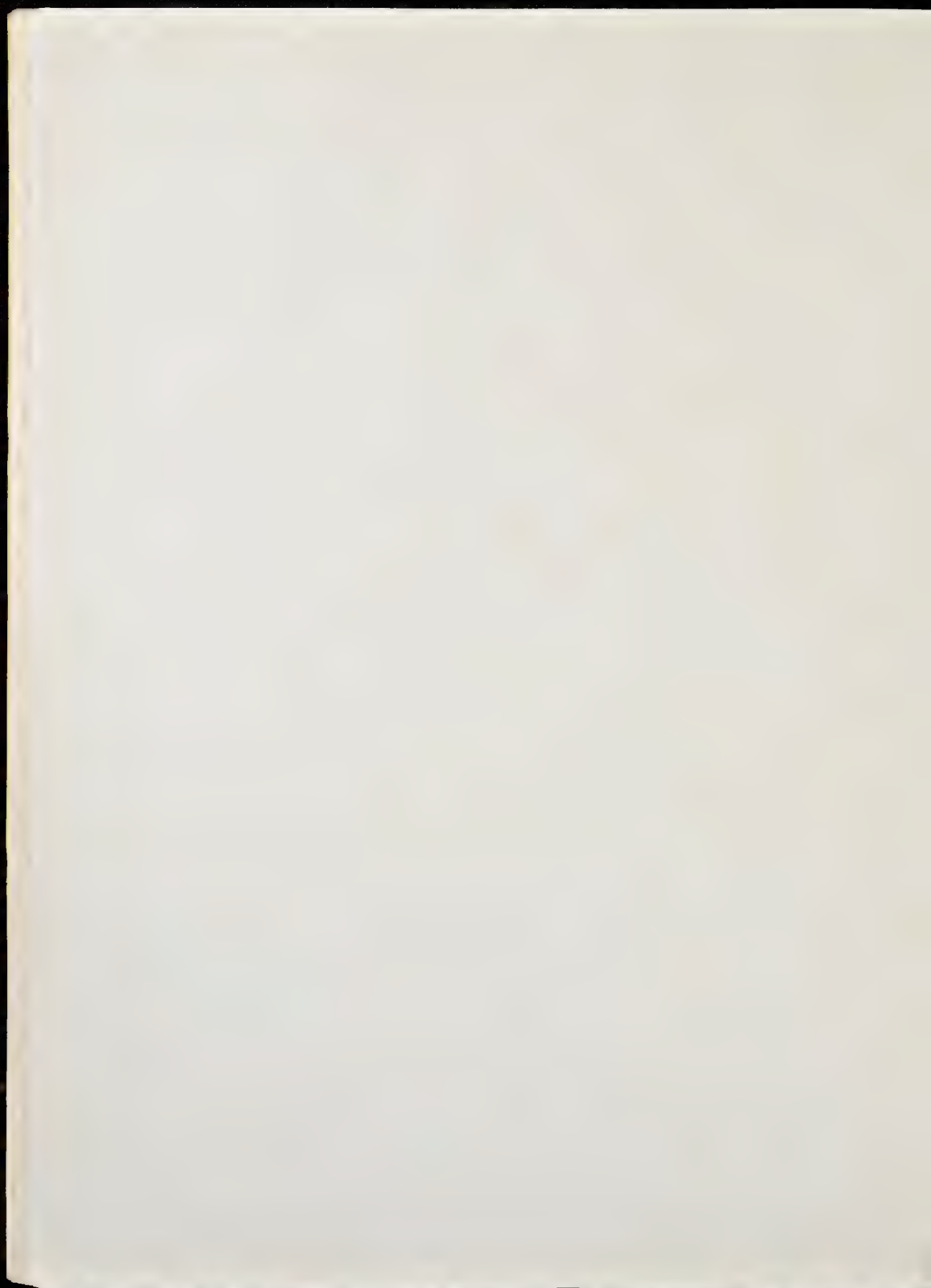


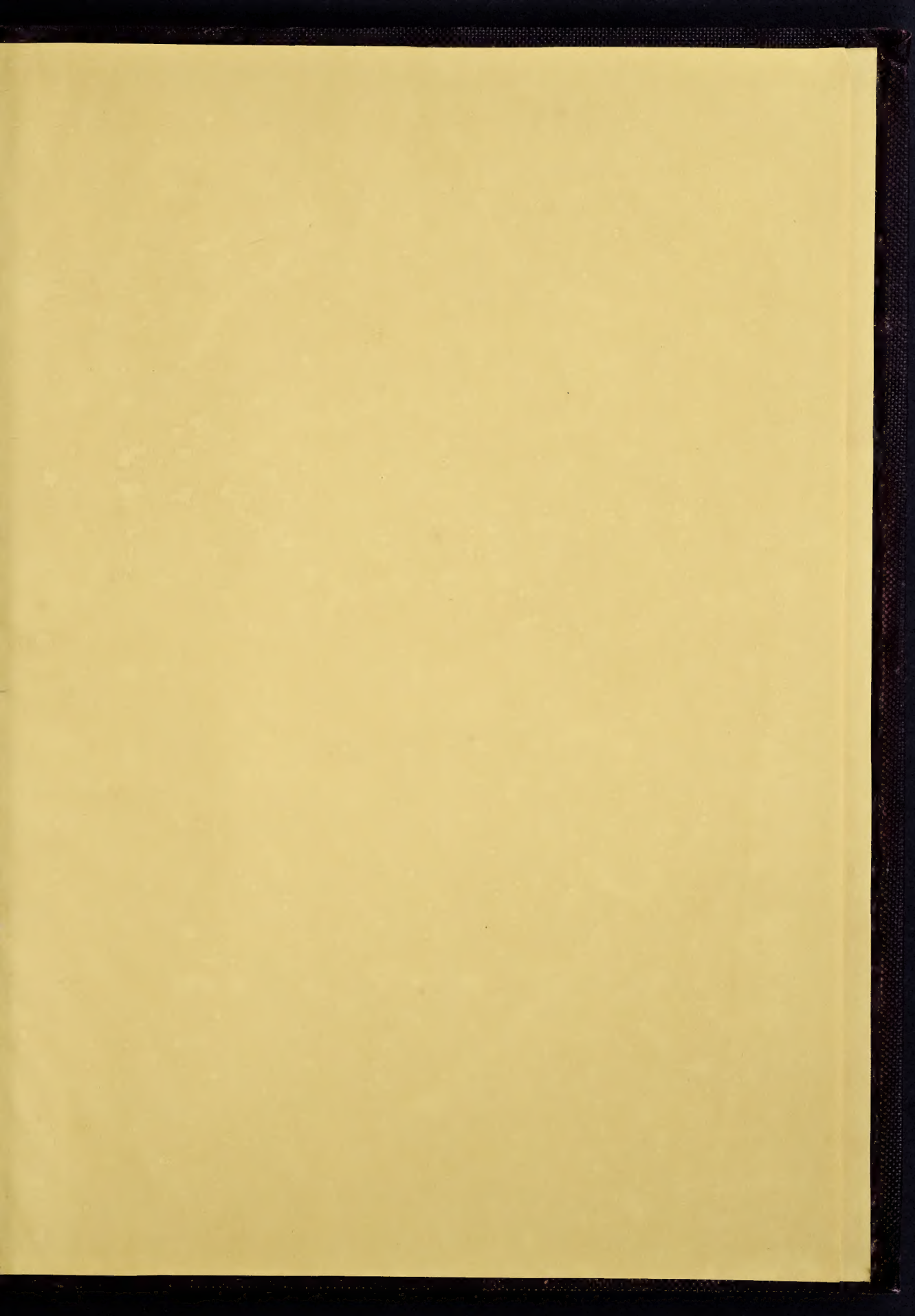












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